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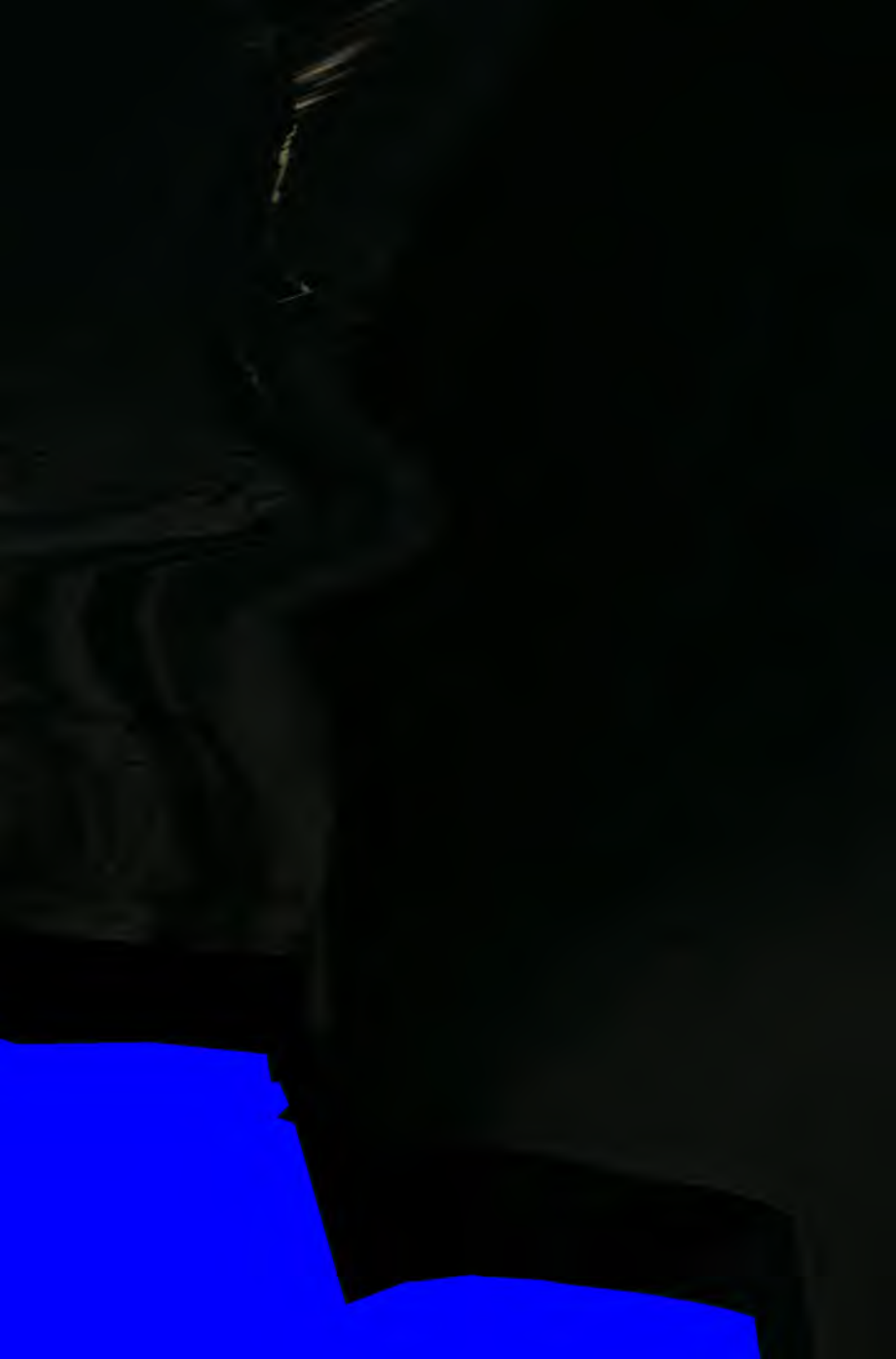

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READINGS IN MELBOURNE;

WITH AN ESSAY ON THE RESOURCES AND PROSPECTS OF VICTORIA,

FOR

THE EMIGRANT AND UNEASY CLASSES

BY

SIR ARCHIBALD MICHIE, Q.C., K.C.M.G.

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London:

SAMPSON LOW, MARSTON, SEARLE, & RIVINGTON,

CROWN BUILDINGS, 188, FLEET STREET.

1879.

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226. j. 328.

LONDON:
GILBERT AND RIVINGTON, PRINTERS,
ST. JOHN'S SQUARE.

PREFACE.

The following addresses on English life in Australia were delivered from time to time in the city of Melbourne. They cover a period commencing with the earlier gold discoveries, and they close with the visit of the Duke of Edinburgh to the colony, in the year 1868.

Each address was delivered with a purpose. The first was aimed at reconciling my audience, and fellow-colonists generally, to the land in which I was speaking to them. That most of them were prosperous, and ought to have been content, was certain. That many were prosperous, and not at all content, was equally certain. "Man never is, but always to be blest." As our Government Statist informs us, more people have come to Victoria, and more people have left it, than have arrived in, or departed from any of the sister colonies. Whether leaving with a competency, or without one, the main fact remained, that for one reason or another, they betook themselves elsewhere. My object then was to show that the chances, so far as their future happiness was concerned, were all against those, who, yearning for the old land, were resolved to return to it.

My effort received a very generous criticism in the colonial press at the time, but how far it operated or may yet operate as desired, can be only matter of surmise.

The second lecture was directed against the then very rapidly growing popular appetite (during a severe commercial crisis), for what was and still is called "protection to native industry." Many of my observations were, of course, much too plain to be pleasant to a numerous section of a very crowded meeting; but I must do the Protectionist portion of my audience the justice to say of them, that I was not only not thrown out of window—the fate predicted for me by some of my friends,—but barring an occasional hiss, or an explosive "No," I was listened to with patience, and attention by all classes throughout; and of course, with exhilarating marks of applause, from those who agreed with me, who, by-the-bye, were by no means a minority to be despised, even if they were a minority at all.

Both these utterances were reported in extenso in the Melbourne journals of the day, but on coming to England, I found I had no copy of either; and so, when some time back asked by the able and assiduous secretary of the Cobden club for a copy of the second one, I was unable to comply with his request. I have since, however, obtained a copy from a friend who brought it with him from the colony, and on re-perusal it appears to me to be equally applicable to any country in which we meet with disputes and conflicts between capital and labour.

The third lecture shows, or rather strives to show, Victorians at high loyal fever heat. No language can convey to the reader an adequate description of the carnival of balls, bunting, concerts, cricket matches, horse races, pigeon shootings, kangaroo hunts, rabbit slaughterings, first-stone layings, German serenadings, corporation banquetings, Highland games (with no end of Celtic gentlemen in all their tartaned and breechless pride,) and general moral intoxication, which welcomed the arrival, and accompanied the stay of his Royal Highness in the colony. The Government voted 15,000*l.* for the purpose of meeting the cost of his trips up the country, and appointed a Royal Commission to superintend the expenditure. The Royal Commission, most royally regardless of parliamentary limitation, spent 30,000*l.* more (of course not their own money) to the back of it, to which expenditure when reported to the Assembly, that so frequently tenacious, but sometimes as careless holder of the purse-strings, graciously responded in the spirit of Mr. Toots, "Thank you; it's of no consequence: not the least consequence in the world."

It was not without just cause, therefore, that the London *Spectator* at the time diagnosed the colonists as suffering under "Prince on the Brain." They recovered, however, from this acute attack, and afterwards with great good-humour joined in the laugh against themselves.

The essay on the colony which follows the lectures is written with the object of affording in as brief terms as

possible such information, brought down to the latest date, as intending emigrants most generally, so far as I have observed, seem to require. Various statistical tables and a reprint of the present Tariff of Victoria appear in the Appendix which cannot be without interest to any one proposing to connect himself in any way with the Australian colonies, although he may never intend to leave these shores.

Sir Charles Dilke, in his interesting work "Greater Britain," writing of Mr. Hayter's statistics, has the following words (vol ii. page 25):—"The exact economical position that Victoria occupies is easily ascertained, for her statistics are the most perfect in the world; the arrangement is a piece of exquisite mosaic. The brilliant statistician who fills the post of Registrar-General to the colony, had the immense advantage of starting clear of all tradition, unhampered and unclogged; and as the Governments of the other colonies have the last few years taken Victoria for model, a gradual approach is being made to uniformity of system. . . . . Statistics are generally considered dull enough, but the statistics of these young countries are figure poems."

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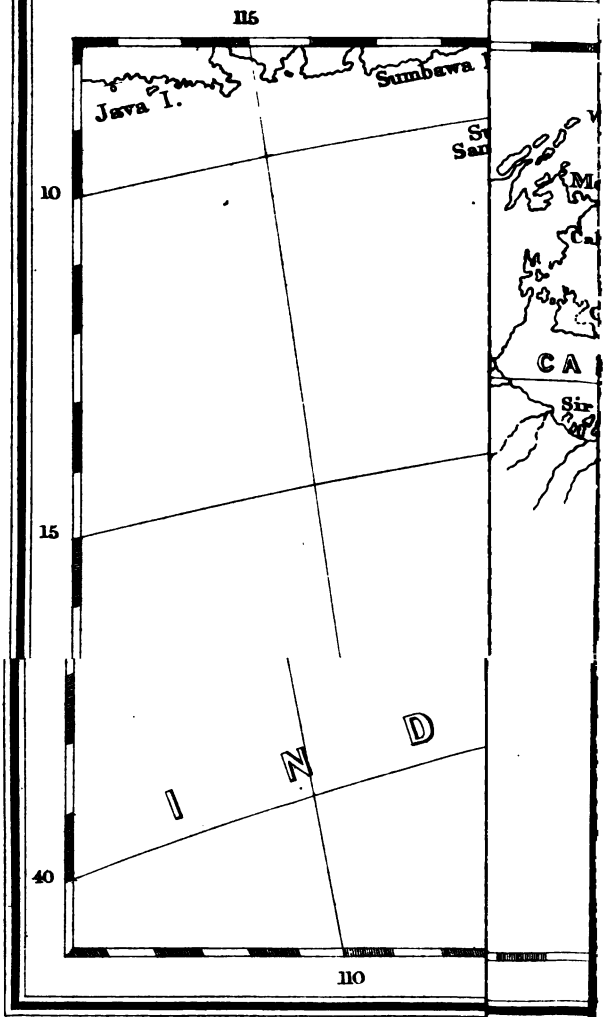
THE widowed and broken-hearted whale here referred to (and which I have carelessly called a fish), the reader may perhaps almost suspect to be an invention of the lecturer. But the "old whalers" of New Zealand tell many other true and extraordinary things about these interesting monsters of the deep. "The young people romp about in their courtships, leaping half out of the water"—said an old sailor to me—"in the most surprisingly loving manner." In short, as the whale is a creature, in its structure and functions a mammal, there is no better reason for denying it the ordinary appetites, and even some of the higher affections of mammals, than the reason—if reason it be—which rests on the one fact, that it lives in, and never leaves, the sea, and hence is popularly regarded as a fish. Even Ray, the writer on natural history, to avoid the appearance of paradox, and innovation, treats cetaceous animals as fishes, and defines a fish thus, "An aquatic animal, having blood, wanting feet, swimming with fins, covered either with scales or with a naked, smooth, hairless skin, passing its life in the waters, and never voluntarily leaving them for the dry land."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READINGS IN MELBOURNE,

WITH AN

ESSAY ON THE RESOURCES AND PROSPECTS OF VICTORIA

FOR THE EMIGRANT AND UNEASY CLASSES.

LECTURE I.

COLONISTS SOCIALLY AND IN THEIR RELATIONS WITH THE MOTHER-COUNTRY.

(Delivered at the Inauguration of the St. Kilda Mechanics' Institute in 1859.)

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—In compliance with the flattering request of the Committee of management, I am before you to-night for the purpose of delivering the inaugural lecture of our infant institution. My only difficulty was the choice of a subject. Some savour of science is usually expected on such an occasion. All the ologies were before me where to choose. I could cram, perhaps, as well as another. Indeed, a poor drudge of a practising barrister must, in virtue of his calling, be considerably a crammable creature. I have been from time to time so stuffed with agriculture, with anatomy, with ship-building, with architecture, and even with the practice of physic, that at times I have been half disposed to consider myself almost an expert at some of these sub-

jects. But to lecture upon them!—No. Would it be modest in me to talk botany within a mile or two of a Mueller? or palæontology, which might be brought before a M'Coy? or geology under even the mild and benignant beams of a Selwyn's spectacles? No. These subjects, on such high occasions as inaugural lecturings, must be left to the professors. To talk law would be to talk shop, and therefore not to be thought of. Nothing remained, then, but to give you something from myself. Neither recondite nor rare—"a poor thing," as Touchstone deprecatingly says of his sylvan beauty, "but mine own." If, in placing before you some aspects of the large subject advertised for to-night, I can enable you to pass one hour agreeably—if I can in any the slightest degree make any portion of my audience better pleased with their condition—if I can stimulate thought, correct error, excite to inquiry, encourage charity in conduct or liberality in feeling, I shall have achieved my utmost hopes on this occasion. But this must be attempted without any reference to politics, or contemporary public questions, all of which, for obvious reasons, must be eschewed. It is now above twelve years since I took my first walk in this now—but by no means then—delightful neighbourhood. Roaming down the coast from Sydney, *en route* for Adelaide, I dropped in at Port Phillip. Inquiring for the whereabouts of an old friend, and once fellow-counsel, of mine in Sydney, the then resident Judge, now ex-Chief Justice, Sir William A'Beckett, I was informed that he was at St. Kilda, about three miles on the southern side of the Yarra. I trudged off—'buses and low-backed cars were unthought of in those days, and railroads were only mentioned by an occasional mild lunatic. I soon found myself in a pretty thick bush, and reached St. Kilda, which, so far

as I could judge, seemed to me to consist of one house, the now Royal Hotel, on the shore. In this house I found my friend amongst some of the members of his family, seated on a dingy and battered old sofa, with a patient perseverance that almost brought tears into my eyes, as he endeavoured to persuade himself that he was spending a few days at what he called, with the utmost seriousness and good faith, a watering-place. For very sympathy's sake I tried to look as much as if I were at Hastings or Brighton as I could; and knowing what my friend had suffered in his official removal from Sydney to this spot, I strove, and I hope successfully, to disguise my consciousness that I was in about the dismallest and most desolate hole a civilized and social being could be buried alive in. The everlasting shipless Bay in front, the monotonous bush around—such was the spot now covered with Alma, and Sebastopol, and Inkerman roads, crowned with terraces and villas, and rich and unsurpassable in crinoline. And yet even in those days Port Phillipians had their fun, their scandal, their picnics, races, concerts, theatres, ladies' benevolent societies, wedding breakfasts, politics, public meetings; and hearty English life pulsated not the less vigorously because as yet the gold lay undiscovered in the soil. All men—gentle or simple, educated or ignorant—came to work at something or other. We started therefore, without an aristocracy in the common conventional sense of the word, and there was no tyrant called the fashion, for every man was free to follow a fashion of his own. Even Bond-street bucks turned into brigand-looking squatters here; they smoked perennial black pipes, ate no end of clay-like damper and hard beef, and were so many Dr. Johnsons in the number of their cups of tea. Only by occasionally kidnapping one of these curiosities of

humanity and marrying him to some civilized girl, an example would be made of the class, and so its Orson-like habits kept in reasonable control. All this, however, worked to good. It broke and disturbed the old pre-existing types of English so-called respectability. Until the better classes began to emigrate, to work with the hands was thought degrading to a gentleman. The revolution set in when gentlemen began to dress sheep for the scab. The revolution surely is complete when a French marquis is driving a dray in Collingwood, and the son of an English peer is in the police, and ex-Fellows of colleges are in the deep-sinkings of Ballaarat. Every man who comes to Victoria is at once stripped of the illusions which mayhap beguiled him in England. He steps on shore at the Queen's wharf perhaps, with strong recollections of what his mother and sisters thought of him at home, and as the whole city does not come out to feed him, and wrap him in purple and fine linen, he discovers in five minutes that he must work to live. He writes home to that effect. Thus the life of colonies may react on the habits of the mother country. In Prussia we are told that every man is taught some trade, without prejudice to the academical portions of his education; and the liabilities and vicissitudes of colonization vindicate the wisdom of such a rule. Soon we come to observe one very distinct consequence of our thus being all workers. There is certainly more social liberty in a colony than in the mother-country. Every man may dress as he likes, eat and drink as he likes, live in what sort of a house he likes, even dye his beard what colour he likes, and nobody observes him. Your wife may go three times to various balls in the same pink silk dress without the fear of Mrs. Grundy before her eyes. I have heard and read of

certain pseudo-fashionable people, both in London and Edinburgh, letting down all the front blinds of their houses, and living in the back rooms, submitting to voluntary imprisonment rather than face in the light of day the dreadful fact that they cannot afford to go out of town at the fashionable season for doing so; and yet they sing with undiminished confidence that "Britons never will be slaves." Such absurd, self-inflicted tortures can never occur here; and yet, with all this social freedom, there was not exactly —and there never will be in the mistaken sense insisted upon by some foolish people—entire social equality. It is of the very essence of freedom that men shall choose their own associates, and they will do so whether you approve of it or not. Much is called pride and exclusiveness in this world which is neither one nor the other. It is merely a man choosing his friends, as he chooses what he will eat or drink; and sumptuary laws are no more permissible in the one case than in the other. Coleridge once opened upon an intelligent-looking stranger, in a public room, with a long and eloquent disquisition on the transcendental philosophy of Emanuel Kant. The stranger bowed in silence, and looked as profound as any German, until a dish of apple-dumplings was brought in to him, whereupon he abruptly broke in upon the poet-philosopher with the exclamation of "Them's the jockeys for me!" Would it have been surprising if Coleridge, after this, had drawn within himself, from this (to use an expression of his own) "imperfect sympathy?" Would it have been fair to call Coleridge "a bloated aristocrat" if after this he had shown an indifference to the dumpling-eater's company? No; social equality, then, and social freedom are two different things. If social equality were to be mistaken for the right to intrude into

company that did not want us, we should be committing a tyranny under the name of equality, and social freedom would be at an end. Plain, however, as this must appear on the slightest reflection, we find in practice the two things perpetually confounded together, and that too, apparently, exactly as countries are democratic in their political institutions. Charles Dickens tells us that the very boys in the United States would follow him into his private room at his hotel; and, having sated their own curiosity, would go to the head of the stairs, and call out to their friends, "Hi! here he is; come up, and have a look at him!" In the earliest days of this colony, as at the present time, and as there ever will be, there was a bloated aristocracy in the sense I have above indicated. Many, indeed, who use the expression do not believe in it, but explode in this fashion a certain anti-social malevolence in the disguise of liberal cant. Thus, then, ate, drank, dressed, worked, and waxed strong the Australians of the pre-auriferous formation. Little knew and little cared mother-country as to how we got on. They were not very clear that we did not live in tents, and fight for the possession of the soil with blacks and kangaroos. Nay, even in these latter days do the bulk of those now living in our old mother-country know as to how a colony like this comes into existence? How much even knows your scientific or your literary man at home of that strangest of births, the founding of a colony? They see it not in the forming; they know it only, and then very imperfectly, when formed. As some fine morning an emigrant hen which had disappeared from your yard without notice, suddenly, after many days, reappears, emerging from a clump of geraniums, followed by about sixteen chickens, to the intense joy and wonderment of the children, so

the hatching of a colonial brood is almost as much of a mystery to that dear, old, jog-trot, respectable British Empire of ours. If you read in the *Edinburgh Review* Sydney Smith's earliest notices of New South Wales, you find him expressing himself exultant as a school-boy over a newly discovered bird's-nest. A lot of expelled and almost forgotten Englishmen have turned up in the great South Pacific Ocean; the fellows can actually grow wool, catch and melt whale, import cottons. They show some dim sense of civilization. They understand gigs, start theatres and newspapers, and mechanics' institutes; they talk and do Newmarket almost as well as the original. They may in time come to be worth misgoverning. Give the colony to Barnacle,—his patron supports Ministers, and we cannot well refuse it. Barnacle's not a Solon, it's true; but then it's only Australia.—Such was the state of things colonial only a very few years back. Such is not the state of things now. Let us grumble, of course — could we be Britons without?—but let us also strive to be just. If colonists once growled and agitated, and properly growled and agitated, at being too frequently jobbed out by ministerial corruption to official incompetence, they have not growled and agitated in vain. We are now the lords of our own affairs. Held as we are to England by the lightest and most silken cords, we find ourselves in one of the finest of climates, and in a vast territory, free to grow into anything, and astonish the world with our achievements and successes under responsible Government. It is now, as Iago says, "in ourselves that we are thus, or thus." If we fail, or recede, or even stand still, must not the shame now be ours? Can we fail, or recede, or stand still, but from ignorance or dishonesty, or indifference to our duties, public

and private? We often hear democracy lauded, from the stump and the platform, as the finest of principles; but this is not necessarily so. Blind indeed must we be to what is going on in the world, if we cannot see that democracy is either a very good, or not so good, a thing, just as that democracy may happen to be educated, or uneducated, to good issues. Like a helpless blind man groping about and feeling his way within the walls of a prison, must every people be who have more political power than they have wisdom to guide it. Success, then, to mechanics' institutes; prosperity to your debating class, in which your ideas may have voice and articulation, instead of (as Lord Bacon says of unexpressed thought) "passing away in smother." By these institutions young men especially are preparing themselves for the duties which awaits them. Frequently we hear the cautious cry, "Responsible Government is a mistake; we are not yet fit for it;" and indeed such statements are not entirely destitute of some appearance of foundation. Much leisure and knowledge, and some enthusiasm for public business, are necessary for Parliament men, and we are not abounding in any of these advantages. But so neither were our forefathers, as you may read in Sir Francis Palgrave, and yet somehow they did their work. In short we must all go into the water before we are able to swim. Bearing in mind that you have a future, that you have public duties and liabilities, we must strike out as the puppies do. "Bother!" cries Gradgrind, "what do I care about colonial politics—parish vestry work? Hand me the price current; let me make my 'pile,' and be off home to Belgravia or Hyde Park. Let fools do the politics; let me do the business, and take an early passage by the over-

land route." Well, this is sincere and selfish at any rate. But somebody must do the politics. And as I, for one, do not think we are yet fit to set up as an independent power for ourselves, it seems not unimportant that those politics should not be slighted either here or in England. The history of the American Revolution shows us that nothing offends colonists so much as contempt; and assuredly nothing will tend to the permanent unity of colonies and mother-country so much as perfect equality of rights and a wise mutuality of respect. A man of genius, Sir Bulwer Lytton, doubtless has said, that the business of a Colonial Legislature can only be like that of a large vestry. Be not deterred from our politics by that. A man of genius may sometimes say a foolish thing as well as another. Did ever Sir Bulwer Lytton say anything less worthy of him? Possessing and possessed by St. James's, he apparently hardly thinks that humanity can be of any considerable consequence, can have any very important affairs, can command any noble future beyond that fashionable pale. It is not that there are not vast human interests beyond an English Minister's immediate ken, but that he, in the atmosphere of fashion—his world—cannot adequately apprehend them. The present eye sees but the present object. A small thing that is next to a man makes a greater impression on him than a large thing that is remote. But in nature there is no large, there is no little, as we in our purblind vision see them. We are the slaves of the comparative degree, because we can see so little at a time, because we are necessarily subject to the influences which immediately beset us and hem us in. If you were undergoing a sentence of solitary confinement, your bread and water for tomorrow morning would be to you a vastly more interesting

entertainment than would be a lord mayor's feast on the other side of the world. From the minutest thing you can see through the microscope to the most distant planet you can barely descry through the telescope, Nature made all, and it savours of the presumptuous for us patronizingly to call any of her work either little or great. All is, indeed, great beyond human comprehension; and even in politics one human interest is essentially as great as another human interest. The politics of Athens, in Sir Bulwer Lytton's mode of regarding these things, were very small indeed compared with the politics of the British Empire of the present day—yet these Athenian politics gave us a Demosthenes to warm the heart of patriotism to all time. Since then, whatever deeply stirs the intellect and passions of man, whatever may largely affect his happiness in society, is of equal and vital interest, and may lead to the grandest results everywhere, we ought to speak and think of things as they are. Doing so, we shall find that colonial politics are of as much consequence and interest as are Imperial politics; nay more, that to us colonial politics are of more consequence and interest than are Imperial politics, and that for the very simple and sufficing reason that colonial politics immediately concern ourselves. Secondarily, they are also of very considerable consequence to the mother-country, as we shall see. If Great Britain were, as by the wand of a magician, suddenly stripped of the whole of her colonies, would she not be hard on the way towards becoming little Britain? Granting all for which Mr. Cobden might contend—and I speak of him as an eminently good, and sincere, and honest man, who can dare to say the thing that is unpopular when he believes he is right—granting all for which he might contend, viz., that looked at through

debtor and creditor's glasses, England could advantageously bear the amputation of her colonies, and pecuniarily gain by the operation, have we exhausted the discussion, that concession being made? I should say not. Is the moral influence arising out of these possessions of no account? Has not an empire upon which the sun never sets a *prestige* amongst all the nations of the earth for the prevention of evil, and for the effecting of good? Does not even each individual Englishman, Irishman, and Scotchman think a trifle better of himself, as the free citizen of a great and powerful empire, than he would think of himself were he a Hottentot, or a Japanese? Besides, amongst mysterious Louis Napoleons, and trembling balances of power, to seem strong is often to be strong. As in a border country some old patriarch may remain unmolested for many years, because, although among dangerous cut-throat neighbours, he can, at call, bring about him a score or two of stout sons —may not Britain be as reverently respected, with her children waxing strong among the continents and the islands of the globe? Portions of a common empire, speaking the same language, reading their literature, in habits and modes of thinking the same, how are we other than portions of that same British Empire, save in those intervals of sea which lie between? Have not we emigrants the same rights, the same advantages, and the same privileges in every respect, as have those we have left behind us? "Not quite," Mr. William Charles Wentworth would say. That gentleman, some years back, in the pages of *Fraser's Magazine*, as we are told, contended for the granting to colonists, as to abiders in the mother-country, titles of honour from the Crown. He was much ridiculed at the time on both sides of the globe; and certainly a peerage, save for men

of very large estate, is a sufficiently ridiculous thing. Wentworth's colonial peerages became a capital jest. He had gone home himself, it was averred, for a baronetcy at the least. Be this as it may, it does not, and can not, affect whatever there may be of sense, or of nonsense, in the proposition itself. What Mr. Wentworth felt was—and surely he was right—that a colonist *ipso facto*, and as the very result of leaving England, held a degraded rank as a British citizen. Let his property, his qualifications, his achievements be what they might, he could not become a peer of the realm. Even if he did not care about becoming one, he might not relish being deprived of the possibility, as therein lay the slight: just as a man will agitate for the franchise he may never use, or resent not receiving an invitation he would never wish to accept—so curiously and variously vulnerable is that odd quality, human vanity. Sir Robert Peel expressed a wish that his widow should not accept a peerage; partly perhaps from the proud consciousness that a peerage could add no lustre to the name of Peel, and partly retaliative on an aristocracy which had more than once given itself airs of insolent condescension towards the son of the cotton-spinner. Yet, although Sir Robert would not accept a peerage, it is by no means certain that he would not have felt some chagrin had he never been offered it. Few men but have such complexities of character. Few men also but are more or less susceptible of gratification at being distinguished favourably among their fellows. Was it the intrinsic value of the parsley or pine-leaf crown which made the combatant of the Isthmian or Olympic games peril his life and reputation before the public gaze? I wonder what a pawnbroker would advance upon the Garter? How is any man the better, the richer, the

worthier,—how much warmer, healthier, or more comfortable,—for a knighthood, a baronetcy, or a peerage? Not much. Where, then, is the charm or value of these things? Bestowed with discrimination they mark the public recognition of their owner's worth. Do not believe men who say they consider all such things worthless. The title is, after all, but the form in which our fellow-citizens' appreciation of us—expressed through the fountain of honour—shows itself. And it would be very disastrous for society—nay, could even society exist?—if we were in the mass utterly indifferent to the good or ill opinions of our fellow-citizens. Here and there may be a Diogenes who cares not, or affects to care not, even for the grandeur of an Alexander. But Diogenes must have been unsound in his mind, or proud as Lucifer in this affected lowliness, or he would never have growled, dog-like, at mankind from that celebrated tub; and had he lived in our days he would probably have been taken to the police-office under the Vagrant Act, and possibly would have deserved it. A man must be either a god or a beast, it is said, to be absolutely indifferent to the estimation in which he is held by his fellows. Even Coriolanus, although he despised the mob, and told them so, yet pursued glory, because the acquisition of it delighted his mother. To return, then, to this subject of civil distinctions—of titles, and of placing colony and mother-country on the same footing. I find that, although Mr. Wentworth has been ridiculed for his argument, another writer has made similar suggestions, no less a person than Mr. Arthur Helps, the celebrated author of *Friends in Council*. I extract the passage from the Essay on Government, as showing how these matters are beginning to be looked at in England :—

"In any discussions upon reform, in any propositions for improving the representative or the executive bodies, how rarely is a thought bestowed upon the colonies! How rarely is it recollected that we are a great empire! I am persuaded that if we are to maintain this empire, it must be by attaching to us, in some manifest way, the eminent and forcible men of the colonies. I do not care how this is done. At any rate, I do not venture to assert dogmatically how it should be done. Whether by attaching them as councillors to a department; whether by introducing them into the Privy Council; whether by giving them some opportunities of getting into the House of Commons; whether by conferring peerages upon them, it is not for a private person like me to determine. But if we wish to remain a great State we must be prepared, I think, to give those persons who in distant regions are increasing and enriching our empire some means of adit to the Imperial Executive and the Imperial Legislature. Consider the Roman Empire. See what a great thing it was to be a Roman citizen. It does not require any peculiar learning to apprehend what was the depth and meaning of that citizenship. The uncultivated reader of the Bible can judge from what he reads of St. Paul in the Acts, as well nearly as many a scholar can, of the pervading weight and power of Roman citizenship: 'When the centurion heard that, he went and told the chief captain, saying, Take heed what thou doest: for this man is a Roman.' Race is beginning everywhere to be more thought of. It may be wise, or it may not be wise, but such is the fact; and it seems to me that it would be one of the greatest efforts of statesmanship to keep that large portion of the Anglo-Saxon race which still remains under the sway of our Sovereign united to us

in the closest bonds. I was honoured some time ago by a visit from an American, who is admitted to be one of the most eminent persons in the United States. He is a man above all petty prejudices—above any small-hearted jealousy of the parent country. He looked around him, and said he could perceive no signs of decadence in England. He praised our vigour, he lauded our courage; he had a good word to say for our agriculture, and openly acknowledged he was astonished at the burly forms and downright independence of bearing which he saw, for instance, among our farmers. 'But,' said he, smiling benignantly, 'we shall outgrow you; we must outgrow you.' Now I am not so sure of that; at any rate, I believe we can put off this outgrowing for a long time, if we only have the skill and the justness to attach our colonies to us by firm and durable bonds of thorough amity. Look at Australia; look at Canada; at South Africa; at the rapidly-rising British Columbia—what fellow-citizens we have in these most flourishing regions. You may tell me that the colonies have legislatures of their own; but that does not appear to me a sufficient reason for not endeavouring to bring the eminent men of these colonies in closer connexion with the Imperial Legislature."

Such are the words of Mr. Helps. When I describe him, as I am sure I do justly, as a good and wise man, at once bold and prudent, benevolent and very much in earnest—clinging to nothing merely because it is established, and repelled by nothing merely because it is new—a man wisely ready to try all things, and merely hold fast to that which is good—and so, that very rare and admirable character in these days, the due mean between the conservative and the innovator;—when such is the impression

of himself he produces upon me, it is with much diffidence I venture to differ from him in anything, and yet I cannot but express my opinion that he is wrong in this suggestion about peerages, or seats at the Privy Council for what he calls "eminent colonists." In the first place, a peerage is an honour very unfitting for any but a person of very large fortune; and yet the possession of the vastest fortune, by itself, is not admissible as constituting any claim to such an honour. Test the matter at once by looking round amongst ourselves. Imagine for a moment the three or four very richest amongst us ennobled—made peers to-morrow!—would you not be forcibly reminded of the text, "As a ring of gold in a swine's snout," so is the Victorian peer with only his possessions? Would not you shout with laughter at the incongruity so insupportably Brummagem and absurd? Would Sancho Panza presiding at the duke's table be more movingly ridiculous? Well, then, we find that not to offend our sense of the fitness of things, wealth alone will not gracefully carry a peerage; that several other ingredients—wisdom, education, character, talent, and entire leisure to devote these qualities and properties to the public good, are indispensable to the recipient of such a distinction, if we are to respect and not to laugh at it. Am I, then, altogether and without any qualification, opposed to Mr. Helps' peerage suggestion? No: I have already shown that I do not sympathize with those who—some of them, doubtless, sincere, others envious and affecting the philosophic—cry down all titles whatsoever. Nowhere, as tourists from Marryatt down to Martineau tell us, more than in titleless and democratic America, are people found so universally becaptaining each other. A volunteer publican will answer to the sound

"colonel" when serving behind his bar, and an elected justice of peace is commonly addressed as, and complacently responds to, the title of "judge." Laws and constitutions will no more alter men's vanities than their complexions or their stature. Constitutions, therefore, may as well countenance what they cannot control, if the thing countenanced be not injurious in itself. Let there be peerages, then, if Mr. Helps likes; but confer them not ridiculously, and confer them so as to effect more good if you can. Make highly-successful Governors of colonies peers if you like; a Metcalfe and a Poulett Thompson, successive Governors of Canada, were not improperly ennobled; there was some sort of consistency between their work and its reward. There is a strong savour of sense, too, in such a proceeding as this. A few retired Governors in the House of Peers might really be of substantial use, as they could throw much light upon much home darkness respecting the capabilities and the interests of our colonial empire, as returned proconsuls taken into the Roman Senate frequently contributed much by their experience and advice to the good government and prosperity of the provinces. What work colonists could do in the House of Commons I hardly know. But it is not difficult to suggest other modes in which Home powers might demonstrate their respect for the colonies. The Judges of Westminster Hall, who only within the last generation or two have taken notice of the decisions of American Judges, might extend the same courtesy—not to say justice—to well considered and carefully prepared judgments of supreme courts of British colonies. A double advantage would thus be secured, one of sentiment, the other of substance. A compliment would be paid, which is something; and, secondly, the cheapest

possible kind of substitute for a court of appeal would by such means be provided; for supreme courts would certainly mind what they were about, with all Westminster Hall looking on. But however we may differ with Mr. Helps upon such topics as I have noticed, can there be two opinions as to his wisdom in enforcing upon the mother-country the great Roman example as to the *management* of colonies? Statesmanship should make us parent and child as much as possible, *one* in sentiment, in opinion, in interests, and institutions. Not that a colony should be regarded as a mere refuge for the destitute in pocket and reputation; as a home bishop, in a letter of introduction given years ago to a gentleman of damaged character, said, "that although the bearer had forfeited his position in the mother-country, it had occurred to his friends (the bishop included), that the gentleman might do very well in a colony"—a sliding-scale in morality, not beautiful in a bishop, nor very ornamental in any one. I prefer Helps. And he, duly reflecting on the words of the centurion, feels how deep and subtle a principle is contained in them as a means for attaching to the mother-country her colonies, and incorporating them in spirit and purposes with herself. "Take heed what thou doest, for this man is a Roman!" What a text is here for a thoughtful English politician! What a burden of large and deep meaning do these simple words carry! Bear in mind that by the Roman polity, it was by no means necessary for a man to be born in Rome, or even in Italy, to become a Roman Citizen. Rome conquered, and absorbed. She sent forth her legions, and her Cæsars, and having reduced a foreign power by the sword, that power ceased to be altogether foreign upon its fall. The aliment of Rome was foreign

nations. Gaul, Spain, Britain, were so many huge meals, as it were, to Roman voracity; but after being thus disposed of, they were henceforth portions of the Roman Empire, and the inhabitants thereof were admitted to the rights of Roman citizens. The hard, practical governing men of those days, taught by life and experience, and having next to no literature either to lead or mislead them, soon saw that, as our own great Burke says, "all power is weakest at the extremities"—that no foreign nation can long be held against its will by its conqueror—that although the sword may begin, only wisdom, and justice, and kindness can complete a conquest. Hence we find, taking even the instance of Britain, the Romans were in occupation as colonists of the southern portion of the island for some 400 years, intermarried with the native young ladies—and very good judges too—founded towns and cities, cultivated the fields, and in short became fused and amalgamated with the original inhabitants to that degree that scarcely an alien or dangerous element at last was left to peril, or even resist, the Roman rule. Here was colonization—the most scientific colonization—founded deep in the principles of our human nature, conquerors and conquered wedded together, until the latter, like Desdemona, became "subdued even to the very quality of her lord," and the two became one for every great object of social and political life. "Take heed what thou doest, for this man is a Roman." Fancy a native Spaniard, or Gaul, standing by and overhearing himself thus referred to. Not, "This man is a slave, a tributary, a provincial, a colonist," but wisely disregarding the accidents of race and birthplace,—"This man is a Roman." Surely the founders of such a polity must have been something of metaphysicians; they

must have been deep judges of human nature; they must have known, as never governments knew before, how to flatter once hostile nations into pride and delight in and devotion to their conquerors. Might not Christian governments—over Ireland, and North American colonies, and British India—have studied this pagan text with very considerable advantage to all the parties concerned? Let us now come home, and apply it to ourselves. It may be very difficult—perhaps for a generation or two, impossible—to secure a oneness in sentiment as well as interest amongst us. But if an Australian nation cannot spring up at our bidding, why are we to industriously import and cherish national prejudices, and so, of set purpose, with ingenious perverseness, retard such a growth? I have asked this question frequently before, both in the sister colony and here. Some sixteen years ago, Orange lodgemen and Catholic guildmen were firing at each other in our streets, because a battle was once fought on the banks of the Boyne! A quiet man, passing through the streets in those days of early Melbourne, and thinking no harm, but happening to have the corner of a yellow handkerchief hanging from his pocket, got such a crack on the head from a shilelah as must have satisfied him that in this wise world the issues of life and death may sometimes depend upon his taste in patterns. Much of this happily has died out—why not altogether dead? "All quarrel," as Carlyle finely says, "is misunderstanding." And surely this is emphatically true of all international quarrels. Cause of offence has existed or it has not. In either case, the generations principally concerned are gone to their account, and no man is now concerned in blinking the truth. Let us grant, then—as I believe the fact to be—

that Ireland has been grossly misgoverned, that the Theobald Wolfe Tones, and the Lord Edward Fitzgeralds had but too good cause for the exercise of a patriotism, the purity and single-mindedness of which no student of history can question. Granted all this. Yet surely we, their great-great-grandchildren, can in this distant land, and at this distant date, afford to make it up, and start afresh. But at any rate, let us not emulate the stupidity of the two knights in the fable, approaching from opposite directions the suspended shield—gold on one side and silver on the other. You remember the edifying dispute which arose between them, the one asserting the shield to be silver, the other that it was gold; until they put lance in rest, and equitably skewered each other, for want of looking at both sides. How much ill-blood and controversy are caused everywhere by men simply forgetting or ignoring that there are two sides to every question! Perhaps we require to be invaded, and to call out Captain Pitt and the volunteers, and to be made to stand to each other for hearths and altars, before we reach the entire unity of feeling which gives a people real and solid strength. But these are not the only hindrances to progress. Everything said or done, which, unlike the words of the centurion, insists on great distinctions between colony and mother-country, I think, does harm. Why aggravate that natural yearning for the mother-country which medical men know must be treated as a disease? Why should authors, like my friend Mr. Richard Henry Horne, tell us that we are not so æsthetic or literary as they are in England? Why make us long for the unattainable, even if all he says were incontrovertible? Only last Saturday Mr. Horne sent me his very pleasant, and in many parts, extremely clever, little book, entitled "Aus-

tralian Facts and Prospects," wherein I find that, between him and Mr. Frank Fowler, Victoria is between the tragic and comic muse. Mr. Fowler leaps and laughs,—and "throws the hatchet"—clean round the globe; Mr. Horne would speak the words of truth and soberness. Mr. Frank Fowler talks of editors and their frequent fifteen hundreds a year. Mr. Horne insists on the philosophers we starve, and the literature we drive from the land. Does not the real truth lie between? If Mr. Charles Whitehead, as Mr. Horne asserts, came here, and was socially unappreciated, has the same thing never happened to the most eminent authors and artists in England? Was Wordsworth much sought after by a discriminating aristocracy? Was there one Haydon who shot himself, being unable to live? Did Hazlitt die in a garret? Could all genial, hearty England do no more for the greatest humourist of his time, Charles Lamb, than allow him to drudge away all the best years of his life in a paltry place in the India House? Was 100*l.* a year pension adequate recognition of what Leigh Hunt—just departed—aforetime did and suffered for Liberal Whig Administrations? It is idle moaning about these things. The things of Lombard-street and Collins-street, of Westminster and of Supreme Courts, will not allow us to be perpetually walking up and down the groves of Academus with novelists and poets. But we do not neglect their books for all that. The book you can take up and put down at any moment you like. You cannot do so with the author. Your business man is a punctual creature; your author a desultory one. Quarters of hours are of consequence to your merchant; your poet takes no note of time. For aught I know, such opposites may repel each other. We have not the least evidence

that there was the slightest acquaintance between Shakespeare and Lord Bacon; and yet those wonderful men must for many years have passed each other in the streets, and worked daily within about a mile and a half of each other. That Melbourne is not indifferent to literature, is apparent enough in the number of booksellers who are doing well amongst us. I dare hardly trust myself to state what numbers of "Macaulay's History," of "Grote's Greece," and of Tennyson's last poem have been sold in our shops, but I have heard the numbers authoritatively stated, and they struck me at the time as being very great. Be these things as they may, however, and I think I have put them fairly, one thing is absolutely certain—here we are, and here a great number of us must stay. If this country be not our native country, it is the native country of our children, and that consideration alone brings many of us to our moorings. I do not mean to say that when any one dies and leaves me 20,000*l.* a year, I will not go home; but I do certainly mean to say, that most of those who go home are disappointed, if I may judge from the frequency with which they come back. They do not take all things into account. Something is ever left out only to be supplied by experience. Some would rejoin friends of their youth, who have waxed older, have changed, have found other friends, and have in any case little leisure from life's fitful fever to bestow on returned Australian millionaires as they take or mistake you for. Some remember Piccadilly and Hyde Park, and forget the east winds and the fogs; but many more are doubtless influenced by the feeling that they are escaping from an inferior to a superior state of existence. They can see no money's-worth of pleasure to be had in Victoria, and no honour to be got in public life here. The cold shade

of the Bulwer appreciator chills them. They cannot sit at what appears to them to be a sort of side-table of the British Empire; they cry, We are shut out from station and science and the arts—colonial living is to vegetate, not to live. Because they are uncomfortable here, they fancy, as Dr. Johnson somewhere says, that they will be more comfortable somewhere else. Now, this is generally a delusion, let the British Government and Parliament deal with Messrs. Helps' and Wentworth's suggestions as they may. Shut out from science! Are there no stars above us—no flowers beneath our feet—no attractions for the geologist—no wonders for the naturalist—no strata dipping all sorts of ways, no quartz, no bunyip? Have the explorer and the geographer no interior to excite their curiosity,—has the ethnologist no material for endless speculation as to the future of our race? Are not three Chinese married to three Irish girls at Ballaarat? Have I not seen their babies? Is not our national nose already becoming flatter, and in these race-mixing results of gold-attraction, may we not have to look for our grandchildren's portraits on the sides of tea-chests? Again, only let our Hornes, and other literary and scientific men, go into the fields and learn what a charm there is in the zoology and natural history of the Australias. How much is there yet to be discovered! White's "Natural History of Selborne" has become almost a classic, because it faithfully records the nice and daily observations of a close and curious observer of nature in merely one place in England. There is not a spot on the face of the earth which does not equally abound with the wonders of creation; all that is wanted is the seeing eye. Only a few weeks back I was seated in my verandah watching a young kangaroo I have, as it was

nibbling at the tender blades on the grass-plot, occasionally with head erect, and dilated and apprehensive eye, on the look-out for danger, when in an instant I saw a little bird fly down from its nest, built under the eaves of the house, and alight with the utmost confidence, and without the least ceremony, on the back of the kangaroo, and begin digging and tearing away, beak and claw, at his back hair, as a digger might work at his claim. I expected to see the kangaroo bound off in terror from this sort of free selection. Not so. He nibbled away as before, and the bird in about two minutes had stuffed his beak with the fur of his patient friend. Occasionally, when the bird gave too energetic a dig, the kangaroo would gently put up his little arm, and give himself a mild scratch, to enable him to do which the bird would stand aside for a moment, and return when the scratching was over. It was plain that the bird's beak was a sort of accommodation bill to the kangaroo, renewable from time to time at the pleasure of both of the parties. From inquiry amongst my children afterwards, I learned that they had frequently observed the same interesting operation, and that the birds got the hair for the lining of their nests from this source. Now one would think that the least likely place in the world for building materials would be a kangaroo's back, and yet here was ocular demonstration of how, almost unconsciously, useful we may all be to each other in this remarkable world. To witness things like this, is to be for a moment like Adam seated in the Garden of Eden, and it is not until one is driven again to business thoughts, which so disgust Mr. Horne, that the mind is stripped of its agreeable illusion. I remember on another occasion, I was hoeing under an almond-tree, when my attention was arrested by

a sharp fluttering sound close to my head, now over one shoulder, now over another. I stopped, and looked about, and listened, but could neither see nor hear anything. I resumed my work, and again came the mysterious fluttering. I thought of Caliban's speech—

> "The isle is full of noises,
> Sounds, and sweet airs, that give delight and hurt not."

At last, I became convinced that whatever thing was thus conducting itself must be, when quiet, lodged in the almond-tree. I went up to it, and at once amongst the leaves saw two beautifully-marked little birds, which had been apparently interested in what I was about. Approaching closely, I was surprised at the amazing tameness and confidence of the little creatures, and never felt more complimented in my life than I did on finding that they sat and chirruped on the boughs, never attempting to escape, whilst I gently took both of them into custody, one in each hand. I took them into the house to show them to the children, and afterwards went back and carefully placed them as nearly as possible on the same part of the tree as that from which I had taken them. I saw they had been missed by their parents, for one or two older birds immediately joined them, and began hopping about them in bird-like ecstasy. There would, perhaps, be no such thing as fear in the world if there were no such thing as injury or injustice. I must let Edward Wilson know of these curiosities of ornithology, and encourage him towards his heroic and too little appreciated work, which he has been so long and so perseveringly following out in the mother country in favour of these colonies. Take another piece of Australasian natural history. Put forth from the

land to the sea, and learn wonders of the deep undiscoverable in Linnæus or in Buffon. Go to some Twofold Bay or to New Zealand, and make the acquaintance of the old whalers. They talk of the big fish they live among as they talk of their fellow-creatures. No science? Take the following anecdote, the substance of which I had communicated to me some time back by a New Zealand settler. Would not a British naturalist have given something for such a fact? One night, a few years back, the settlers on the shore of one of the bays were aroused by tremendous roars and moans coming in from the sea. As no man, or even bull, could send forth such sounds, the new chums were struck superstitious, until one inquisitive Englishman got up, and went out to inquire into the mystery. He lighted on a whaler, and asked him how he accounted for the frightful noise. "Lord, sir!" says the whaler, surprised at the simplicity of the question, "it's only that old bull whale come in to-night to look arter his old ooman that we harpooned the other day in the bay. He's been in several times afore, and he's getting desperate at not being able to find her anywhere about." The new chum questioner was confounded; and, notwithstanding the things of the like kind which he had heard before, he half suspected the whaler was hoaxing. But it was not so. Every six or seven hours this bereaved creature came thundering into the bay on the same hopeless errand. His establishment was broken up, and if ever fish truly grieved it was here. Day by day his visits became fewer, until they wholly ceased; but whether in consequence of his having pined, or rather, literally blubbered himself away, or whether he married again, no one ever knew. At any rate, he emigrated from that bay. Are not such facts as the above

worthy of record for the use of the scientific? Do not the enormous number of new observations, accruing from so many instructed men now wandering over every part of the globe, almost require that our treatises of natural history should be rewritten? What wonderful fossils and other palæontological specimens have we not already sent to our able and scientific friend Professor Owen? Is it at all probable that anything like the whole, or even the larger part of the animals, or of the vegetation of Australia, is known to the science of Europe? How large a portion of this uncollected wealth of Nature's handiwork is scattered among and possessed by shepherds, whalers, squatters, and gold-diggers, seeming to them, perhaps, to be too familiar to be garnered into printed books! And yet, men persist in running from this land of marvels in search of a more stimulating state of existence in the stereotyped civilization of Piccadilly or the Strand. They fly from a good climate to a bad one—from sunshine to fog; lastly, they seek happiness where it never will be found—outside themselves, instead of within. Even a heathen can teach them better. I say to Mr. Horne,—

"Quod petis, hic est,
Est Ulubris, animus si te non deficit æquus."

Which I translate—What you seek is here,—here, in Melbourne, if your mind is not wanting to itself." You may be happy on Robinson Crusoe's island; you may be miserable in Paris or in London. It must depend upon yourself whether you are the one or the other. And this, I cannot but think, must partly depend upon whether you have enough to do. No man can be troubled with *ennui* who has work before him. Children and household cares

are pleasant troubles in this country as in any other. If beyond these cares you would take upon yourselves some public one, everything is open to you in a democratic country, much more so than it is in what you call "home;" quite as much so as ever it was in Athens, or is now in America. Here, if anywhere, in public affairs it is "the tools to the workman." And what a noble task is before our young men just emerging from our schools, and our University, and our workshops and farms into active life. Apart from mere material advancement, is there no more intellectual interest in seeing, as through a glass hive, an infant people in their growth—a nation in the gristle? such a process cannot be witnessed in the older societies, but here are materials for ceaseless interest and speculation. As we grow and draw into our own system the variegated interest and enterprise of a world, from the Far West of America to remotest China, Spaniards, Greeks, and Germans, and Italians, and French, we find springing into existence at the same time Great Eastern steam-ships, electric telegraphs, and railways. We already talk under water with Tasmania, and right and left 600 miles on either side of us, hold converse with Sydney on the one hand, and Adelaide on the other. Our poor black brother-biped shoots his spear, or hurls his boomerang, and perhaps has some strange and superstitious thoughts about these new wire-works of ours. Soon perhaps, by the help of our friend Mr. Gisborne and his patrons, we may, Puck-like, put a girdle round the globe in forty minutes. Then England may be merely the centre of a vast web of empire, one and co-equal throughout the globe. The affairs of Greeks and Romans may hereafter appear commonplace compared to the events yet to come, when millions of British citizens

may any morning be mustered by the wires for defence of any part. The history of the world will be served up to us hot and hot, and we shall reject the cold dishes of books. We shall know the markets everywhere, Mr. Horne will be able to growl round the globe by telegram, the mail will be everlastingly coming in, and we shall all grow rich and be able to visit Rome, or Paris, or New York, or London, or John o' Groat's House, or the Pyramids, or the Great Wall of China, or Geelong; and feel six sensations where the ancients only felt one; and so, on the principle that time is only the succession of ideas, live six times as long as our forefathers. With these exciting and pleasant prospects in view, I, for one, can be as happy in Melbourne as anywhere else. I stand up for the land of sunshine and gold. Its very air is a tonic. Unlike the mother-country, men lose fortunes here and do not cut their throats. Even your determined stater of a bad case against us can't do it properly. Climate converts Mr. Horne himself, in spite of himself, from a crying into a laughing philosopher. Get his book, and if you think he wrote that history of his portable forge, and of his unsuccessful candidature for the overseership of roads, with tears in his eyes, they must have been tears of laughter. The humour of it is as good as Lamb's or Dickens'. Invaluable the alchemy, more valuable than gold, which can extract inexhaustible fun and laughter from our past miscarriages. Surely this is portion of the real science of life. The mind is its own mint, as well as "its own resting-place." So little, indeed, is Mr. Horne in reality depressed that he believes he shall yet become a rich man, not by literature, he says, but by horsemanship. Whether in his manifold versatility he cherishes the secret purpose of riding three horses at once in Rowe's

Circus, he does not allow to appear; but he does allow to appear, amid all his moodiness, that these colonies are, in his opinion, "the most interesting and important of all the possessions of the British Crown;" and as a loyal man when the French or Russians may come against us, we may depend that the late commander of Dight's Light Horse will be found ungrumblingly at his post. As who would not? Are we not parcel of the old stock? Socially and politically ought we not to be one? What Englishman, mindful of what his country has gone through for liberty and civilization; what Scotchman, whose soul is warmed by the traditions and glorious story of the "land of the mountain and the flood," and who at his uprising and down-lying, perhaps, thinks of the wimpling burn in which he fished when a laddie; what Irishman, whose warm and susceptible nature fills his eyes sometimes with tears at the sad, yet not inglorious story of the poor old land of the green isle—which of these, after all, does not find himself yearning with fond affection for the old country, now perhaps—even now—in her dark hour of tribulation and deadly strife, for her own existence, and for the liberties of a world? Which of us would not, if a wish could do it, fly to her, and stretch out a helping hand, even if the feeblest? Proud, dictatorial, valiant, benevolent, grand and petty as she has so frequently shown herself in her marvellous and unique history, she is surely, both in what she has done and in what she has suffered, the greatest nation that has ever lived in the tide of time. That Providence will spare her to be yet, in the coming generations, the intrepid champion of liberty and free thought throughout the world, I do most fervently trust; and that all her loyal and loving children scattered amongst the uttermost parts of the earth

will—casting aside the petty animosities of the hour—stand by her[1] in these dread days, I do most devoutly believe. Amen, and so be it. And as I have already trespassed too much on your kind forbearance, we will now say good night, and go home.

[1] In 1859, the year in which this lecture was delivered, the papers were full of an apprehended invasion of England by the French.

LECTURE II.

VICTORIA SUFFERING A RECOVERY.

"I WONDER," said the little French princess, on hearing of the great distress of many of her father's subjects, "I wonder why the poor people should starve; why don't they eat some of those nice little cakes I see in the confectioners' shop-windows as we pass through the streets?" Here is a wonder not confined to little French princesses. Given mouths and meat, our first impression is, why not fall to? It requires an effort of the reason to learn wherefore there should be any want in the midst of apparent plenty. There cannot be a doubt that this colony of Victoria is labouring under a severe depression at the present time, and yet it is difficult to realize that fact as we read the journals, walk through the streets, or go into our places of public amusement. I catch even myself frequently demanding *of* myself, —"Where *is* this crisis we are perpetually hearing of?" Theatres and concerts flourish as of old. No end of German bands still parade the town. About every fortieth shop is photographing all the ugly faces in the metropolis. Races, picnics, and excursion-trains, have by no means died out. Some weeks back—I read it in one of our morning papers—a man sold two hundred canaries in a few hours at Sandhurst, at one pound each, and was so delighted at

the buoyancy of the canary market in that auriferous locality, that he was coming down to Melbourne for a fresh supply. Even our street beggars are not as other street beggars. As I was going into town the other morning, I saw one perched on the top of a low-back car, going out apparently on an excursion to Brighton; and I have heard that he occasionally lunches at a confectioner's. Remarking on this to some one afterwards, I was informed that this same beggar came from Kew into town of a morning to business, and went away again in the evening, like other mercantile gentlemen, comfortably and respectably on a low-backed car. Here, again, we are reminded of Sydney Smith's celebrated contrasts between this country and all others. "Set a beggar on horseback," says the old proverb, "and he'll ride to the ——," &c. Here we can promote the beggar even to a low-backed car, and he does *not* ride to any such fearful terminus—he most judiciously goes no farther than the Chief Justice's neighbourhood, at Kew. In short, looking merely to the surface of society, nobody seems to be "on his last legs," except Mr. G. V. Brooke, and, under the circumstances, we cannot pity even him, seeing how he prospers on them. Yet a depression there must be, as every one says so. It may be that it would be considered as prosperity in England, and many other countries, but it is a depression in Victoria. Are the causes thereof more obscure than the effects are undeniable? Is not the body politic like the body natural? Does not the excitement and overtrading of the past commit over-drafts on the vigour of the present and future? and does not, therefore, depression follow excitement, as naturally as night the day? Is not this observable all the world over? And if so, is there anything in the social constitution of

Victoria which should give her any special immunity from such visitations? Surely not. So far from this, the very vigour of a young community like this facilitates excess, as, on the same principle, it facilitates recovery. Meanwhile disaster is a great soberizer. It stimulates reflection. If we are all waking up out of a wild dream to see so many properties sold for the benefit of mortgagees, we may at least rub our eyes, look at things, if possible, in their right proportions; consider from what causes such effects have accrued; how long they are likely to continue; and by what means they may most speedily be removed. There is no lack of state doctors, and the prescriptions are pouring in. "Restore immigration," cries one; "Crush quartz," says another; "Put down your buggy," growls a third; "Improve your mining machinery," insists a fourth; "Plant vineyards and export colonial wine," recommends a fifth; "Drink it," urges a sixth; "Pass a thorough good Land Bill," says a seventh; "Protect colonial industry," urges an eighth. And so on. Can any one of these prescriptions, or all of them put together, cure the present stagnation, or prevent the recurrence of it? "The colonial situation a study," seems to be no inappropriate subject for a lecture which aims at clearing in some degree our ideas on this, to all of us, rather important inquiry.

We are half a million,[1] in a land and under a climate capable of sustaining many millions. Our lands in the main are not of the richest; but very many years must elapse before even our best soils are subdued to the uses of man. It is only some seven years since Victorians were elate, intoxicated with prosperity; when sensible men and

[1] This was in the year 1860. The population by the last census was on the 30th of June, 1875, 813,588.

fools alike had money thrown, as it were, at their heads; and when (as is not unusual with suddenly acquired wealth) much of it went in absurdity and extravagance almost as speedily as it was acquired. The causes of this flush of excitement, of these rough *saturnalia* of the newly-moneyed, were even at the time obvious enough. The vast yields of our newly-discovered gold-fields had attracted scores of thousands of enterprising and energetic spirits from all parts of the world. Scarcely one of these people came here absolutely destitute. Almost all arrived with some, and many with considerable means. All required to be fed, clad, housed. Instantaneously, therefore, a demand prodigiously in excess of the supply arose for everything necessary to the feeding, clothing, and housing of the new arrivals. To aggravate and intensify (and having considerably the effect of prolonging) this demand, by very far the larger proportion of the labouring men betook themselves to the gold-fields, where they continued so long as gold was to be had in almost fabulous quantities for the mere trouble of scratching it off the surface of the soil. And yet houses, and such food as could not be imported, were required, and must be had for all. The first consequence was, that wages of all kinds of labour, skilled and unskilled, rose to such a height as we now almost fear to think of. Plasterers and masons, 2*l.* a day; carpenters, 30*s.* a day; common labourers, 1*l.* a day. In a word, the average gains at the gold-fields furnished the standard to which the rates of all other wages naturally and necessarily gravitated. The golden fund from which everybody was apparently being made rich, was partly brought and partly found here. The fortunate owners of a few (in any other part of the world) wretched tenements became, as by a stroke of harlequin's

wand, transformed into capitalists. Wonderful as were the prices paid to the Government for town and country allotments, still more wonderful prices were got for the same lands as they passed from hand to hand. In a few months, during the latter part of the year 1852 and the year 1853, house rent rose from 150*l.* a year to 900*l.* a year for tenements such as any Londoner can enjoy for 50*l.* or 60*l.* a year. Hay was 70*l.* a ton; vegetables neither poor nor rich could indulge in habitually, save in their dreams. Cabbages, I believe, sometimes changed hands at about 5*s.* each. Meanwhile, the very police, the coachmen, the grooms, lawyers' clerks, ay, and even official men in large numbers, were off to the gold-fields; and even Sir William A'Beckett, the then Chief Justice (being at that time an invalid, and his coachman *non est*), had for some weeks to be wheeled to the court by his sons in a bath chair. This was before my advent to Melbourne, but quite as strange things took place even many weeks after my arrival. A once fellow-counsel of mine in Sydney, a gentleman well known to many of you, came down here in 1852, in consequence of a request that he would fill the vacancy that was likely to occur on our bench by reason of the then contemplated visit of Chief Justice A'Beckett to Europe. Mr. D. arrived from Sydney on a Sunday. The hotels were all full, the waiters little short of insulting to any exacting and intolerable wretch who wore a black hat and did not drink a "nobbler" about every five minutes. Mr. D. applied for a separate bedroom; but such applications at that period were considered as some evidence of lunacy in the persons who preferred them. Poor J. B. D., I think I see him now—a gentlemanly man, with a manner of blended austerity and politeness, which made him a curious mixture of Coriolanus and

Beau Brummell,—I think I see and hear him using his powers of persuasion (which were considerable) to win that single-bedded room. What was his success? Why, we were told, and the story never was denied, that the best terms he could procure were, a comfortable shake-down on the top of a taproom table, between two lucky diggers! That, or the alternative of walking all night about Melbourne streets—and such streets at that time—he might choose between.

> "The art of our necessities is strange,
> That can make vile things precious."

Thus, in his sore extremity, philosophized poor King Lear; and thus, probably, felt my poor friend. He took the table and the diggers; but the next morning I myself saw him posting down this street as hard as his legs could carry him, from a farewell visit to Vice-Royalty, back to the vessel that brought him to Melbourne. In a few hours he was steaming from our bay, and, I need hardly say, he never came back. Our whole city, in short, was at that time a sort of fevered, drunken, delirious Pandemonium. In nothing was Melbourne industry then more conspicuously manifested than in its burglarious robberies, "stickings-up," and shootings in every direction. When you dined out in those days, your host, on your leaving his house to return home, kindly placed a Colt's revolver in your hand, and suggested that you should keep the middle of the street, and that it might not be on the whole impolitic to shoot the first gentleman you met who said, "Mate, can you tell us what's o'clock?" Nevertheless, the greed of gain reconciled men to all these miseries, which, of course, could be but transitory. Lodging, food, police

protection, were then the altogether indispensable: the high rents, high prices, and high wages, cured themselves. Capitalists concentrated their efforts on building—market gardeners and farmers found their callings more profitable than gold-digging, until, as the new supplies of each grew up to, and, at last, met the demand, prices came down almost as rapidly as they rose. Meanwhile the rich finds were becoming fewer at the gold-fields; immigration, by reason of our disorganized condition, fell off, and in less than five years from our first gold discovery, everything was changed. A new Melbourne having been built, was not required to be built again. St. Kildas, Prahrans, South Yarras, and Emerald Hills, were competing for tenants; market-gardeners and farmers were competing for customers, artisans for employers, candidates for policemanships; and rents, as well as prices, fell as rapidly as they rose. I do not say that wages fell, for a sort of imperial ukase has said wages shall not fall; and nature is for the thousand and first time turned out of doors to come in at the window, as of old.

Why do I thus run over this rapid retrospect? Because we can hardly start fair unless we do so. It is well to take stock of our condition—to see what has been done during the last seven or eight years. The Melbourne of 1852, then but a very inferior English town, unpaved, unlighted, muddy, miserable, dangerous, has become transformed into a great city, as comfortable, as elegant, as luxurious (it is hardly an exaggeration to say it), as any place out of London or Paris. Ballaarat, Castlemaine, Sandhurst, Kyneton, and other places, have sprung into considerable townships; are lighted by gas, and are alive with the busy hum of men. A beautifully metalled road enables you to go in eight or

nine hours to Castlemaine, a journey[2] which, in the year 1852, you could hardly achieve in less than three days, and even then, at the risk, in the winter time, of disappearing in the mud by the way. Our advance, then, is measured by the whole difference between what the colony was in the year 1852, and that which we find it at the present time; and, therefore, he must be very blind, very ignorant, or very perverse, who would aver that we have made no progress; and that, after all these years, we have nothing to show for our gold. And yet, assertions like this we do occasionally meet with among platform orators and newspaper correspondents.

Speaking the truth of and to what are called the working classes—as if there were here any class which does not do some work or other—is not considered by some people as the surest means of attaining to popularity. However this may be, sure I am that speaking the truth exactly as it is in a man, and as if he were speaking to his own consciousness, must in the long-run meet with the approbation of the just and the sensible of all classes. Wise and moderate men will be tolerant of error; and as to the rest, what does it matter what fools or rogues say of you? I propose, therefore, to talk to my audience publicly, in the strictest confidence, about labour, wages, producers, distributors, immigration, free-trade, &c. &c., in the confidence, that I shall be listened to with patience, even though you should not agree with my conclusions; as, in any event, discussion and discovery are assisted by mutual toleration. A hiss never settled any truth, nor was political economy ever advanced by cries of "Turn him out," unless the man to be turned out was interrupting the speaker. As everything

[2] The journey is now made in four hours by rail.

we eat, drink, and enjoy,—save air and those other things we get for nothing,—are the results of labour seconding and wielding the powers of nature, the labour question is always at the base of every discussion of this kind. Nothing is more common than to hear some individual, who rises for the instruction of his fellow-creatures, cry, in reference to all those persons who do not actually handle a chisel, a saw, a plough, or some other physical tool or implement, "They are drones in the human hive; throw all Melbourne's thousand merchants into Hobson's Bay, and no one would miss them; but throw an equal number of working-men into the same watery grave, and see what you shall see!" Startling this, very; and we usually find stuck against it in the newspapers, "loud cheers." I wonder what the same enlightened cheerers would say to that ingenious man who is reported to have once visited the source of the River Thames, in Gloucestershire, and in an ecstatic sense of supposed mischievous power, clapped his hands upon the springs, exclaiming, "What will they say of this down at Wapping?" Now, what they would say of this down at Wapping would be about the measure of what the world at large would say on the sudden deprivation of a few hundreds or even thousands of either her merchants or mechanics. The sun would continue to rise and set, people would go to their work, and come home from it, and men of business would assemble in Collins Street as before. Sure am I, for my own part, that merchants in the main are as useful as mechanics, and mechanics as merchants, or they would not be where they are.

But the mechanic sometimes demands of the merchant, "What do you *produce*? You are of no use at all, for you produce nothing." Well, let us follow this a little

farther. Strip that mechanic of everything *he* did not produce himself, and what sort of a figure would *he* cut? would his own toilette be one jot more complete than it was when he first came, like the rest of us, mewling and puling into this world, "to make his mother," as Jeremy Taylor says, "a little glad, and very sorrowful." From head to foot is there one thread he has made himself? How many animals have lived and died? how many voyages have been made? how many dealings and bargainings and spinnings and weavings, and tannings and stitchings, and packings and unpackings, have all been done before he could be clothed? Are not distributors, then, quite as useful and valuable a class as those called producers? Again, go from what our mechanic wears to what he eats and drinks. What of these things has he ever produced? Run over all the operations that must occur before he can breakfast off that cheap loaf which is brought to his table. Let him reflect upon his sugar, his tea, his coffee, his butter, his bacon, his beer, perhaps his nobbler. What an infinity of human industries have been in motion, and have by some mysterious process come together and converged into that breakfast which he devours, and thinks no more of, for a shilling. What factories are smoking, what steam-engines plying, what storms at sea being battled with, what aching heads over ledgers, what pryings into prices current, what watchings of seasons and of weather, what shipbuildings and shipwrecks, what ingenious implements invented, what vast successes, and as vast failures, what happiness and what despair, are all ceaselessly vexing the surface of the universal globe, in order to keep that mechanic and all other wearers of clothes and eaters of breakfasts, supplied with the necessaries of life from day to day? Again turn

from our bodily to our intellectual wants. Men cannot live by bread alone; the diviner part of him needs other aliment. A penny loaf may suffice for his breakfast; but libraries are not more than sufficient to feed his curiosity, and his appetite for inquiry, and speculation, and discussion. Think, then, of the thousands and tens of thousands of authors, from Homer down to Martin Tupper, of copiers, and printers, and papermakers, and booksellers, and newspaper men of all grades and forms of industry, physical and intellectual, kept ceaselessly at work to feed the insatiable brain of man; and, as the result of all these labours, you get a classic for a shilling, and *The Times* newspaper—that "history of the world for one day"—for fivepence, and the *St. Kilda Chronicle* for nothing—for they always send me the paper, but never call for the subscription!

Miracles are extinct, but these results bear the closest resemblance to a miracle. They are simply the highest developments of the division of labour. The opposite point to this extremest application of the division of labour principle, is exhibited in the situation of Robinson Crusoe upon his uninhabited island. Our working man, with his 40*s.* or 50*s.* a week, is, in many respects, richer than Julius Cæsar in the imperial purple. A man can chip stones, or plane wood, and with his day's wage walk into the next street, and command the industry of the world. For him, as for every one whose labour can bring money, the sun is ever shining, the fruits ever growing, the nations ever toiling. He holds up a magic piece of gold, or a bit of particularly dirty paper, and the world rushes towards him with her choicest treasures. Is it better to be this man, or to be compelled, like Robinson Crusoe, to produce with difficulty what others can buy with ease?

A sufficiently absurd question surely upon the face of it, and yet it is a question protectionists ought to consider with respect. For the thing called protection must always, in its very nature, be an approximation, more or less, to the condition of Robinson Crusoe. Protection, by a plainer and more descriptive name, is compelling A to buy something of B, at a higher price than that for which C can and will sell the same article. B calls it Protection. A calls it Robbery. B calls it protection, because, he says, if you expose him to the competition of C, he (B) can't live by his business. A calls it robbery, because you force from his pocket, for the benefit of B, the difference between the price at which he (A) *can* buy of C, and the price at which he (A) *must* buy of B. Transpose the position of A and C respectively, and each will then call the thing by the name which the other now applies to it. There never was a colony less exposed to foreign competition, more thoroughly enjoying protection, than that of which Robinson Crusoe was the governor, and his man Friday the governed. And what was the state of *their* pastoral, agricultural, and manufacturing interests? Look at Robinson Crusoe's trousers and cap in the old woodcuts; then turn to some of our colonists rigged in slops from top to toe. Why, Robinson Crusoe, in all his glory, was not arrayed as one of these. And yet, our slop-dressed colonist—see the evidence and report of the late committee on the tariff question—goes straight from a furious speech in favour of protection, to native industry, and invests his eight or ten shillings in a pair of imported moleskins. In short, he thinks it perfectly proper that everybody else should protect native industry, but he feels no particular necessity for protecting it himself. Hence, practice contra-

dicts profession, and the truths of political economy break through cant. It comes round to this wonderful final result, that any and every man who can work at anything for which society has a demand—and any and every man who has either saved for himself, or who has succeeded to the savings or possessions of another—has got a certain corresponding power over all the other industries and stored labour (called property) of the rest of the world; and the world is all the wiser, the richer, and better, by each man just working, when, where, and how he can, and exchanging the fruits of his labour as and where he thinks best. "Protection," as it appears to me, is merely another name for obtaining money under false pretences by Act of Parliament. To hear some protectionists talk, one would think that nobody of any consequence lived in this colony on the import trade. I say nothing here for the merchants, because they are to be thrown into Hobson's Bay; but how about the shopkeepers, the porters, the draymen, the innumerable mechanics connected with the shipping interests, the clerks, the domestic servants? Are they all to become shoemakers, tailors, coachmakers, cabinetmakers, &c., to show us how they "can't do it" at any price others can afford to pay? These are to the initiated but trite considerations; yet they are by many every day either forgotten or ignored. The only pretext for a return to anything like protection is the oft-quoted exceptional case admitted by John Stuart Mill, viz.,—where young countries, as fitted as older countries for particular manufactures, are desirous of recovering the start those old countries have obtained, and try to recover this start by imposing duties upon the foreign product. Even here, the exception admits, if it does not prove the rule; for the protection is to be but temporary,

and to cease when the older country is overtaken. If the older country cannot be overtaken, then the protection is mischievous, as being first a throwing away of a certain portion of the industry of the vainly competing country. Even Mr. Mill, however, in the very passage of the work alluded to, seems to forget that in new countries some protection already exists in the very nature of things, in the cost of freight, expenses, &c., of the imported commodity to the new country. As for the common talk on this subject I suspect many attendants at meetings hardly know what protection means. "Protection to native industry" has a sentimental sound about it. We all like to be taken care of, and the expression savours of that, so that you have only to start the word "protection" at some meetings, and you catch a large portion of the audience at once, who are for protecting everything and everybody, even to the "unprotected female," made immortal by *Punch*. But to come from the sentimental and the abstract, to the concrete, are they for giving thirty-five shillings a pair for Melbourne-made shoes, inferior to the best imported at one pound? Protection, to be worth the name, must come to something like that, or it is no protection at all.

Now, who are those who so loudly demand this protection? Skilled mechanics: a very valuable class in any community, it cannot be denied. They cannot, or will not dig for gold; they cannot turn to tillage; they are unable to offer anything to society as the purchasing power of the necessaries of life, save their skilled labour. The farmer, getting only six or seven pounds for a ton of hay, says to the shoemaker, "I could not, even if I would, give you thirty-five shillings for a pair of colonial-made shoes when I can get a pair from Paris or Northampton at twenty

shillings." The shoemaker must either undersell the importer, or turn to something else, or leave the colony. Perhaps he takes the last course, in which case a good artisan is lost to our society. Still, is this, or are any number of such instances as this, sufficient ground for abandoning the principles of free-trade as at present prevailing in the Australian colonies? Are all boot-wearers in the colony to pay this forty shillings as the price of keeping the superfluous bootmakers here? Yes, says the boot maker—No, says the boot-wearer. On which side lies the prosperity of the general colony?

Endeavouring to ascertain this, let us try the matter a little farther. Imagine general protection to shoemakers, tailors, coach-makers, even farmers, and all in like case with the instance put of the immigrant shoemaker. At once the cost of living would, to the whole of us, be increased by some 100 or 150 per cent., so far as such cost related to the taxed or the protected articles. Whence is this increased price to come? From the gold-digger? Can we expect it? He gets, and can only get, the market-price of the world for his gold, but he would have to exchange the fruits of his labour, not at the market-price of the world, but at the artificially raised market-price of the colony of Victoria, for his boots, clothes, tools, &c. The storekeeper, the professional man, the agriculturist, the sheep-farmer, the official man, would be in the same position. What would be the first and immediate consequence of the change? A vast number of miners would at once be thrown out of employment,[3] for already, as we are told, they are only

[3] A small export duty on Wattle Tree Bark, enacted not long since at the instance of the Melbourne tanners, has, in a few months, thrown out of employment some 1500 people, and (as a Member of the Assem-

making on an average wages sufficient to support them at their work. If the enhanced price were paid at all, it would only be by miners working harder, and procuring more gold. But, if the miner could not pay, he must leave the colony or turn to something else. If the official man, the storekeeper, the agriculturist cannot pay—they must all either leave the colony or turn to something else. Many, in this turning to something else, would, of course, turn to the protected trades. This would increase competition among them, and in time reduce the prices of their goods, but not to the import prices without duty, or in such case the protection would be superfluous. Meanwhile, it seems certain that a large number of people, especially from among those belonging to the unprotected trades, would be obliged to leave the colony, unable to subsist here. Industry of one kind would thus be forced into artificial channels, whilst industry of another kind would be forced out of the colony altogether. These seem to be inevitable evils, and they are of a very grave character, for labour, like water, left to itself, finds its level, and any artificial damming up of it in any country, new or old, only prevents it from going where the common wants could employ it to the greatest advantage. Under either set of conditions, therefore, viz., under those of free trade, as under those of protection—a certain number of persons are always leaving, and will always leave every country, for want of employment fitted to their powers. England, we are often told, has fought her way to pre-eminence among the nations under a system of protection. Partly true. And Mr. Thomas Sayers, the other day, disabled of his right arm, fought for two hours very

bly recently alleged) having nearly ruined the town of Echuca on the Murray, has been since repealed by the Legislature which imposed it.

gallantly with his left, and really might have beaten Mr. Heenan had the affair gone on. And, therefore, let every nation that would thrash its Heenan, begin by crippling commerce of its right arm—Freedom.

But we should keep the money in the country, we are told. Why keep the money in the country? As if the most important function of money were not its capacity to command the possession of all other objects of desire. That the depression we complain of cannot arise from our sending money out of the country for goods, is seen in this—that money is still rapidly accumulating in the banks. Curious contradiction!—deposits lying in banks, unused by the depositors, and yet an universal outcry of the scarcity of money, and an almost stagnation of those building and other operations which can only be carried on with money. Well, a very little observation, and reflection upon things in general, will soon clear up this apparent contradiction. In the first place, immigration has almost ceased. No great demand, therefore, now exists for houses. I mentioned, a while ago, that house-rent had fallen some 75 per cent. Houses which, in every part of Melbourne and the suburbs, were in 1854 let at 500*l.* and 600*l.* a year each, may now be had for 100*l.* or 120*l.* Very respectable cottages, such as we usually find in the occupation of artisans and others of the community called labouring classes, are easily procurable at 20*l.* or 25*l.* a year. What inducement, then, have capitalists to build if they can only build at such a cost as to exclude anything like the possibility of their obtaining interest upon their outlay? Capitalists in these colonies, we all know, look for and usually obtain 10 per cent. for their money. But a great Melbourne capitalist, one who has perhaps expended as much money among the

building trades as any man in Victoria, told me the other day that he cannot build now—looking at wages in the one direction, and at reduced rentals in the other—so as to secure 5 per cent. for his money, even were houses to remain continuously tenanted, and never to require reparation. The consequence of this is, that no one now builds who can avoid it. Nor, as I conceive, would even the lowering of wages produce in itself more than a temporary alleviation of this state of things. Any impulse which reduced wages could communicate to building would be merely transitory. In a population so slowly increasing as ours at present, the supply of house accommodation soon overtakes the demand, and when that point is attained expect to hear cries of depression of the building trades. But when that depression comes, in other words, when society has got as much house accommodation as it wants, I apprehend that, unless nature's laws are to be reversed, unless she is to contradict herself for the special benefit of the suffering handicrafts, wages must fall. Remember, I am no advocate for low wages; I merely give simple and articulate expression to nature's silent and inexorable operations. How can I, how can any ordinarily reflecting man, walk about the streets of Melbourne and fail to see that wages must come down, together with rentals and profits, and incomes generally. Ponder upon the announcement of that restaurant-keeper in Swanston Street, whose attractive board I pass almost every morning—I do not give his name, lest it should be supposed that I wish to push that gentleman's trade at the expense of the many other similar establishments in the city equally good, and equally cheap—ponder, I say, on this board, on which the proprietor sets forth that you can have a plate of meat and vegetables, and another of pudding, all for one shilling.

Nota bene—no extra charge for change of plate! How can we get that excellent and substantial dinner for a shilling, but that all the articles of which it is composed are at such a price that the restaurant-keeper can carry on his business on these terms, and yet get a living profit by his trade? Follow up his business into the related industries with which he deals; consider his now reduced rent, his cheap apparel, his cheap vegetables, his not very dear (although, in a country like this, not yet sufficiently cheap) beef and mutton; consider all these cheap things—these cheap results of colonial industry for the last seven or eight years—and then tell me whence is this restaurant-keeper, and the people with whom he deals, market-gardeners, and others, whence are they to get the money with which to pay labour—"sixteen shillings a day, and nothing less?"[4] You cannot get blood out of a stone; you will not find capitalists undertaking any enterprise by which they are to lose, and not to gain. All interests, therefore, both of capital and labour, depending interchangeably upon each other, will always correct and adjust each other. Strikes, therefore, must almost always be either superfluous or unavailing—superfluous where, as in 1854, masons got thirty shillings a day, because society couldn't get such labour at that time for less; unavailing now, because society is not particularly in want of such labour, even at a third of the former price. Nor is the reduction of wages an unmixed evil—if evil at all—to the mason himself. He can command almost as many of the necessaries and luxuries of life now with ten or twelve shillings a day as formerly he could command with the larger sum; and he possesses this equally large command, with the apparently smaller means, simply because every-

[4] This was a common cry at artisan meetings about this time.

body else is obliged to submit to a smaller money compensation for the goods in which he deals. How, then, can any particular tradesman, who thinks at all, expect to benefit by reduced prices, and yet escape himself? To expect such things is to expect incongruities, self-contradictions, impossibilities. It is to expect other men to work for us without our working for them. It is to demand that something shall come out of nothing—that wages shall be paid, which no returns can produce; and if all sections of workers demanded the same thing as against each other, society would be little better than a large lunatic asylum, where each member of it fancies everybody else mad but himself.

What then, is to be done under these unpleasant circumstances? Well, I conceive things must be left, in a large measure, to those internal sources of healing—the *vis medicatrix naturæ*—which society contains within itself. Depression precedes prosperity, and prosperity provokes speculation, and speculation leads about again to depression, with as regular an alternation as day and night, and night and morning. Such a state of things is not peculiar to Australia. It is the same in England—it is the same in America—it is the same in all great commercial countries. Talk to people who lived in the United States in the year 1838, and they will tell you that, when selling off their goods and chattels at that time, prices were little more than nominal for want of money. Lists of "wild cat" banks were kept handy in every store and counting-house, that men might judge as speedily as possible whose paper money to take and whose to reject. That was a collapse, following immediately upon previous universal speculations upon credits, just of the very same character as we are suffering

under at the present time. The fever and ague of trade seems to be the same all over the world. Can nothing, then, be done for the patient? Has the politico-economical pharmacopœia no medicine for so stubborn and prolonged a complaint? Yes. Art and treatment may do something —perhaps much, but certainly not all. We can second nature, not control her. What, then, is to be done? Why, cries every one, "Give everybody something more to do!" "Find us fresh customers!" cry all, from the shopkeeper, listless, and almost hopeless, over his wares, to the artificer, whose tools are idle in his basket. Fresh customers! Most willingly, but where are they to come from? From natural increase of our present population? Hardly so. Read the Rev. Mr. Malthus's book on the principle of population— the book of a wise, an amiable, a very much abused, and certainly not a too well understood man. He will show you that, under the most favourable circumstances, you may double your population, from within, in some fifteen or twenty years. Will you wait so long for your new customers? Where shall they come from then, but from across the seas? What! Immigration? Ay, Immigration! What! import fresh labour at the cost of the present labourers, to contend with these latter? Here is a question which, I observe, easily brings down a cheer at many public meetings; and, for certain, I am not going to treat with any light spirit of ridicule, or with any other than very serious and respectful consideration, those cheers. Say they are not the cheers of the enlightened—are those workmen the only people who have not been sound political economists in matters touching their own labour? Have British merchants, and manufacturers, and statesmen, never been at fault on such subjects as free trade, and international tariffs, and

employment of machinery? And cannot we be reasonably considerate to these cheers, when we reflect upon the indisputable fact that a working-man's labour is of as much importance to him as is a nobleman's estate to the nobleman? Each has but his present means of livelihood, and each may surely be allowed to feel deeply, and express himself strongly, on any proposition the effect of which may be to bring him (as he thinks) nearer to starvation.

Well, then, I am not in the least put out by the anti-immigration cheers. I ask only for a hearing. I protest that if the cheerers can confute me, I shall be as well pleased as if they were to admit that I had convinced them; for, as I have said, my only object is truth. We come back, then, to that word immigration. Are we to raise from the working man taxes wherewith to introduce competitors with the working man's labour? That is the shape in which the question is usually put. I answer, "No." But is that the fair way of putting the question? Does no fallacy lurk in the premises? Is nothing assumed which ought not to be assumed? Tax the working man, to find competition with himself? Is it a tax? If I pay 100*l.* for a hundred acres of land, how is that a tax upon the working man? The payment for that land does not come out of his pocket, but out of the pocket of the purchaser. The more land you sell, the more you increase the demand for labour. And if you are artificially to increase the demand for labour, why not with the very same funds with which you have increased the demand for it, also increase the supply? The whole process being an artificial one, what does the working man propose to do with the proceeds of the land sales, assuming that no portion thereof is to be devoted to immigration? "Oh, put it into public works,"

says he; "find us something to do." Ay, but then we have to hear the other side. We turn to the land purchaser. We say to him, "What do you say to the public works nostrum?" "Well," he says, "why am I to buy land, and pay for it, in order that this colony is to be kept as a preserve for the annual erection and construction of public works, more especially now that there is almost no public to call for any additional works of the sort?" It seems to me, then, to come back to this, that if I buy merely a 100*l.* worth of the public estate, the public have a right to expend that 100*l.* as they please. If they import four or five artisans, or agricultural labourers, with the money, does it necessarily follow that those labourers, on their arrival in the colony, enter into injurious competition with the labourers already here? Surely no, although frequently the labouring classes seem to have arrived at different conclusions. They forget that every man is a consumer, as well as a producer; that every man, in proportion to his command over the industry of all other workers, is a customer of those other workers. The newly-arrived miner, mason, or shoemaker, may seem to be more or less a fresh candidate for those fields of exertion, theretofore the monopoly of the men already assembled on them, but, in fact, he benefits others as much as himself. He buys their labour with his—they sell their labour for his—each enhances the comforts of the others, and that which seems, at a first glance, to be competition, is, in fact, co-operation, when more attentively regarded. Let any man cast back his memory along the last nine years. Has he ever known low wages during a period of extensive immigration? Were wages ever so high in this colony as during the years 1852, 1853, and 1854? And yet, was it not

during those years that the immigration tide was running most strongly towards these shores? Granted that the gold-fields took much of this labour, yet, the main cause of wages keeping up lay in the fact that, whether working on the gold-fields, on farms, or in houses, the importation of labourers was an importation of the demand for labour; capital, the savings of labour, grew with that labour; this capital, as fresh labour continued to pour into the colony, of course employed more labour, and so, each producing and promoting the other, the colony advanced in prosperity. Immigration has stopped; the working men are now freed from imported competition; and yet, have there ever been such lusty cries of want of work as now? Surely, these things cannot be without their own significance for all!

From the above observations, it will be apparent enough, I think, that our circumstances now call for a resumption of immigration; not paid for by the working-man, but paid for by capital. If there be no error in the above conclusions, it seems clear that the effect of assisted immigration is this:—That we sell our land, and with the proceeds buy customers of, as well as co-operators rather than competitors with, the working man, and judging by results, such are the mysterious but certain advantages of division of labour, that the new arrival is more valuable as a customer, to those already arrived, than he is injurious to them as a competitor. And I am glad that this is so. It takes the last rag of an excuse from men, who, having got to this colony, would shut the door in the face of those suffering millions who are struggling with the direst forms of poverty at home. The inexorable law by which, in all countries, population must, at some time or other, press upon subsistence, compels colonization; and is there any

selfishness more depraved or inhuman, than that which would confine our fellow-creatures to a position of pain and struggle from which we have thought fit to escape ourselves?

But is there nothing more to be done than to restore immigration? Yes, certainly. Of what use will immigration be if, as hitherto, it flows through this colony as water through a sieve? We must, if possible, fix people here when we get them. The great earth-hunger of man, as some German writer has called it, must be satisfied. In plain English, all the facilities legislation can provide should be furnished for enabling every man to till the soil who desires to do so. But he may ruin himself! Let him. Doubtless, men sometimes, nay, very frequently, if you like, err in the choice of a profession. But it is certain, as a general rule, the State cannot (even if it were a function of the State, which it is not) provide for men better than they can provide for themselves. Let every man, then, who likes it, go into farming at once. Put things at the worst, and suppose your farmer does become insolvent, rural insolvency is pleasanter than Little Bourke-street insolvency. A man never seems to me so happy as when surrounded by his stacks, his pigs, his kine, his growing crops, his children tumbling amidst the straw, or laughing among the vines. If there be perfect and serene enjoyment, surely it is here. All farm scenes equally conduce to happiness and peace of mind; and, therefore, no wonder that the majority of immigrants harbour the notion of at some time or other going upon the land. This earth-hunger all thoughtful statesmen, as I think, will, in new countries, wisely satisfy; and do not fear that free society will incur more evils in this direction of human

industry than free society can correct and cure; especially now that the last great discoveries of Stuart have practically enlarged the habitable globe, by adding to it a fair and green central land, which so lately we had condemned as an arid desert.

Do not be alarmed. I am not going to talk Land Bill, any further than it immediately bears upon my larger subject. We have all been pretty well bored to death with the ceaseless babblement about "lot," and "limited auction," and unlimited desire to settle the poor man on the lands. Fearful, however, as this subject has now become, I desire to remark upon what appears to me to be one or two errors. Those who talk about getting the utmost for the public estate, as it is called, seem to assume that the State, in selling land, is to be regarded merely as you regard a private vendor. If you do this, surely you confound two essentially different things. The object of the State is to settle the country; the object of the private vendor is to get as much for his land as possible. The end which the private vendor has, constitutes merely the means with which the State works towards a further end. But why, it has been said, should the State be deprived of that difference which A may make by reselling to B, and which difference the State might have made in the first instance, had the land been sold by open competition? Is it unreasonable to answer that the State is not a land-jobber? that it finds its account as much, or more, in getting people on the land as in getting money for the land in the first instance? that the State, having discharged its duty as a vendor, commences another function as a tax-gatherer—your cultivator becoming at once a consumer of some or all of those dutiable goods which yield the great

bulk of our large revenue? The country becomes opened up; roads and bridges are formed and built; the wilderness is subdued to the uses of man; the colony grows. Then, just as the blood circulates through the human frame, labour, unimpeded on any side, flows in every direction throughout the length and breadth of the land, instead of being dammed up and confined, as too frequently it now is, in little local congestions—over-supply in one spot, and deficiency of hands in another, at one and the same time. Look, again, at the secondary evil consequences of doling out land screwed up to the highest price for agriculture, and granting principalities at a merely nominal rent for pasturage. You offend that abstract sense of justice which, more or less, is found among all men; you force upon us the conviction that there is a privileged and petted class among us. Impatient people ask, why should a sheep farmer enjoy miles upon miles of land, at little more than a nominal rent, whilst the agriculturist cannot hold the smallest farm upon any such terms? I have no desire to stir up class against class, but whilst such a state of things as this exists, no Convention, no Eastern Market[5] is required to effect such an object—jealousy and antagonism grow and strengthen of themselves. It has been frequently supposed, and at times with some appearance of foundation for the supposition, that it is of the essence of the democratic spirit in this country, as in others, to hate wealth, and to pull down capital into the dust. Sometimes, perhaps, this low and unworthy spirit may be met with; but is it not equally probable that this supposed hatred is frequently rather apparent than real? and is there

[5] The Eastern Market in Melbourne was the place in which the large open air public meetings were held.

not, at the least, something curiously anomalous in people hating what they are every hour striving to become—namely, rich men.

However this may be, I must yet admit, looking dispassionately at the subject, that if the squatters have evinced some selfishness on the one hand, squatters' opponents have sometimes exhibited unreason on the other. After all, it is merely human that men who are, as they profess to believe, lawfully entitled to great advantages, should desire to retain them; but it is also natural, as well as just, that the public should desire to make the squatter pay a just rent for the lands he enjoys. Cannot both these objects be achieved without oppression, illegality, or injustice in any direction? I think they can; and I think also this can be done with vast advantage to the general productiveness and prosperity of the whole country. This is a subject not to be settled by the extremely short and neat prescription sometimes proposed to us of "driving the squatters across the Murray."[6] "Driving the squatters across the Murray" might be driving our dinners across the Murray, and, put in that shape, requires to be reconsidered. One vast evil connected with this interest at present stares us in the face. From the uncertainty of the squatting tenure, all the runs throughout the country necessarily remain in an unimproved state. Who will trouble himself to dig wells, construct reservoirs for water, or even be at the expense of making two blades of grass grow where one grew before, unless he has a reasonable assurance that he shall reap where he has sown? Whilst the squatter is liable to be turned out at a moment's notice, without com-

[6] A suggestion which generally elicited a cheer from a public meeting.

pensation for improvements—he has of course no motive to improve, and, consequently, a great part of Australia is, in a mitigated form, in much the same situation as was Ireland, between mortgagers and mortgagees, before the passing of the Encumbered Estates Act. The land at home had ceased to be the property of the mortgager, and he was consequently indifferent and without hope. The land had not become absolutely the mortgagee's, and therefore he had not the deep interest in the property we observe in ordinary owners. The problem therefore was, to educe out of this chaos of split-up interests and indifferentisms the beneficial management of the land by those of whom it should be the exclusive property. That problem was solved successfully by that most practical, as well as scientific statesman, Sir Robert Peel. Surely there are no specialties in our case which make it a more embarrassing one than the Irish difficulty. Apart from faction, jealousy, and wrong-headedness, the rationale of the matter seems to lie in a nutshell. I presume very few persons who really have any practical acquaintance with this country, will dispute that many of these lands are *only* fit for pastoral purposes. Nature has passed an eternal sentence of sterility upon them. Are these lands not to be turned to the best account? Can they be turned to the best account unless you give individuals an exclusive interest in them? Can you give this interest effectually, unless you say that whatsoever the squatter lays out on his squattage, shall be secured to himself, as you protect any other person in the enjoyment of the fruits of his industry? Can you thus secure the squatter, unless you say he shall enjoy his lease, or compensation in some shape, if he be deprived of it? No. I say then, that in the future administration of

these merely pastoral lands—whether they be under the State or under rural municipalities—that at the same time you secure to the public an adequate rental, and the right of re-entry at any time on equitable terms for sale, you must secure to the *sheep farmer*, as he will then be called (a new nomenclature marking a new era), the thing, or its equivalent, for which he has bargained, and thenceforth squatter and anti-squatter heartburnings will cease; pastoral lands will be improved like other lands, their leases assignable like other leases, artesian wells would be sunk, artificial grasses laid down, paddocks fenced in, reservoirs formed, homesteads established, a vastly additional demand for labour would spring up throughout all these grazing farms in connexion with the improvements going on in them, and beef and mutton, as in the olden time of the colony, would again be threepence per pound to all of us. Sooner or later, such lands would have to be thus dealt with had squatters and Orders in Council never been heard of. It is simply a question of turning your property to the best account. Under the present no-system the squatter is the only party who profits by it. He gains exactly what the public loses. What is that? The difference between the nominal rent he pays and the fair and substantial rent he ought to pay, and which (as he says) he is, under an equitable system, willing to pay. Sixteen thousand sheep, *with run* on the Murray, lately cost 24,900*l*. This is at the rate of 31*s*. a head. For any excess or deficiency in number delivered, allowance at the rate of 12*s*. a-head was to be made by either side to the other. The difference, therefore, between the 12*s*. and the 31*s*. respectively, represents the value of the run, as settled in the sincerest manner between the vendor and the vendee, and amounting to something

above 15,000*l.* Now, I would not rack-rent the squatter with a 10 per cent. rental on the above amount; but something reasonable, let us say, on the grazing capabilities of each run. Let us never be oppressive; but, bearing in mind old Isaac Walton's recommendation of tenderness even to the worm, let us put the hook into the squatter "as if we loved him."

But I sometimes read in the journals reports of public meeting speeches, from which I gather that the Legislature dare not meddle with the squatters, for that the banks have got them, and the banks are all powerful. This is startling, and, moreover, rather inconsistent with other and just-referred-to descriptions of squatters by the same denouncers. One while, the squatter, with greedy maw, is swallowing everybody else; at another moment, the squatter is being swallowed himself—a fat and sleek deer, gradually going down the capacious throat of a banking boa-constrictor; so that, upon this pleasant theory, there would appear to be but "one way" for us all. Awed, then, by these awful banks, and sharing only the common reverence for plate-glass, and splendid mahogany, and brass rails, and the mysteries of the parlour, does my friend, therefore, who the other day said to me, in Queen Street, "I hope, in that lecture of yours, you are going to touch up the banks," think that I am going to do or attempt anything of the kind? What would the banks care for my touching up—they who can touch up everybody? Besides, who so presumptuous as to say that he really knows anything distinct about those great, sublime, moneyed mysteries? Who, save Joseph Macardy, who offers himself as a special Providence to take care of everybody's money, from 1*l.* upwards—who, save he, knows anything about those greatly reverenced estab-

ments? Who but Joseph knows anything about their assets, their liabilities, their profits, out of what capital made, by what precise business, and under what circumstances? Why am I to be called upon to show my ignorance as to the manner or degree in which the interests of the colony are affected by these full moons, which some superstitious people regard as influencing all the moneyed tides in the affairs of men? Why should I vainly attempt to understand how people can discount at 10 per cent., and divide 20 per cent. dividends? I may have dim visions of overtrading, and so on; but I fly the subject, and leave it to the next edition of Joseph Macardy's pamphlet. Yet, even in flying the subject, may I not ask why that million's worth of debentures of the Melbourne issue has not yet seen the light, according to the act in that case made and provided? Of a verity, many a poor servant and small capitalist would be glad to buy a 30*l.*, or 50*l.*, or 100*l.* debenture, carrying every hour on its back 6 per cent. interest, rather than holding a bank-note of the same amount, bearing no interest at all.

And this brings me to a subject to which the Legislature itself at some time may come—I mean to the consideration of founding in this colony a truly national bank, where the State will be, as it ought to be, the only maker of paper money amongst us, as a legal tender; when the State will have, as it ought to have, the whole profit derivable from any credit that State may have in the world; when that very profit may be turned into the means of paying the interest of our debentures, or into public works, rather than being left to any number of people who choose to join together, subscribe their deposits, apply for an Act, call themselves a bank, and forthwith commence the Royal

prerogative of making money. The Haines-*cum*-Childers Ministry proposed such a measure as a national bank (now some five years back). The Haines Ministry went out; Mr. Childers went home, and the idea became smothered in the land question. But the idea is not dead. Look into Mr. Ricardo's works, and you will find ably and distinctly sketched his idea of a national bank, in which the State should have the profit of the banking operations. Such an establishment, I have been informed, once existed in New Zealand, and was only discontinued—so I have been told by experienced New Zealand settlers—because the revenue and the transactions were not large enough to make it worth while to continue the institution. With a revenue like ours, however, of 3,000,000*l.* a year, with deposits like ours of 6,000,000*l.*, it seems scarcely necessary that we should henceforth be dependent on English capitalists, working in large measure with colonial moneys. I have revived the idea; let others work it out to practical issues.[7]

Time admonishes me that I must hasten to a close. Have I said all that I have to say about the depression? Well, nearly, but not quite. It seems to me that great public disasters frequently contain the seeds of still greater public benefits, and that even depressions, crises, and commercial revulsions have their uses. They set men thinking, devising, casting about for modes of escape; to giving practical effect to new and valuable thoughts; to developing resources of the colony, the thought of which may not have occurred to prosperous, and contented, and uninquiring minds. "Sweet are the uses of adversity." Now that

[7] The net Victorian Revenue for the Financial year 1872 was 4,106,790*l.* 9*s.* 10*d.*

we have thousands of flocks in the colony, no one thinks of bestowing any special glory on old John Macarthur for first introducing the merino sheep; and yet he was an original man, a genius, a brave, self-dependent man in his way. His son, too, the major-general, who has lately left us, what has he not done for our wine trade? Many years ago, he went himself to Germany, distributed pamphlets in English and German, explained the capabilities of the colony for the cultivation of the vine, and for wine-making; engaged vignerons, put them on board ship, got into trouble—he told me so himself—on a charge of kidnapping the Germans to this fearful country; and yet he has never published these things; but should he ever read the account of them in any history of the colony, he would blush to find them fame. The great depression of 1843 and 1844 set the Messrs. O'Brien, of Yass, boiling their sheep—at that time mere woolly vermin—for their tallow. Thus, a fat sheep was found convertible into a five-and-three-penny export. This was a discovery at the time; and acknowledged and appreciated as such, and it was a discovery the result of deep and general distress taxing men's inventions. In like manner, coming nearer home, a short time back a very gentlemanly man—one with whom many in this room are well acquainted—stopped me at the corner of Collins and Queen streets, and said he understood I was much interested in the development of our resources; and receiving for answer that I was so, he proceeded to say that he had discovered one, that he had it about him, and could at once submit it to my consideration. I was interested, as you may suppose, and so must you be. We have read a great deal lately about Australian gems. So perhaps your imaginations are already scampering off into the regions of mineralogy or

geology. Was it a diamond? No. Perhaps an aquamarine, a topaz, or a ruby, or an emerald? Not at all. You give it up? Well, then, he drew it from his coat pocket with a solemnity I cannot describe, and it was—what? A sausage !—a short, regular, orthodox, unmistakable saveloy? Before I had recovered from my surprise he said, "Taste that, and tell me what you think of it." Well, I hesitated; because, although I like sausages, I have a prejudice (perhaps a weak, and finicking, and unfounded prejudice) against sausages being carried about in people's pockets. In an instant, however, I saw that his enthusiasm ignored all such despicable weaknesses, and, evidently quite unapprehensive of the cause of my confusion, he pressed the article upon me. I took a cautious and critical nibble. "Now," he said, "what do you say to it?" "Well," I answered, "I have tasted worse sausages than that." "I should say so," said he, "but what will you think, my dear sir, when I tell you that the whole of that sausage is made out of kangaroo?" "Well," I said, "I could believe it." "I am going," he said, "to apply to the Solicitor-General for a patent, for I believe the idea is thoroughly new." I said, "I think so too." He carefully re-wrapped the saveloy in paper, re-dropped it into its appointed receptacle, and strode away with an air that delighted me. He did not seem so much to think of any profit derivable from this preparation, as of the fact that he was carrying a portion of the salvation of the colony in his pocket, society all unconscious of the millennium impending. We may laugh at this; but is not the great city of Bologna itself better known to the great British mind by Bologna's celebrated sausages than by her fountains, her colossal statues, her picture-galleries, her museums and

cabinets of art, her Cardinal Mezzofantis, her public libraries, or by being the birth-place of one of the greatest orators of our day—Father Gavazzi. On these occasions, perhaps, we may feel half disposed to despise the sausage, but we are at times glad enough to eat it for all that. I maintain that my gentlemanly friend's idea is good. It is another, and a worthy attempt, to give by transformation exchangeable value to that which is at present comparatively valueless; many things are yet to be grown and produced in this country, and profitably exported, which down to the present time have never been even thought of. For we are little better than Chinese copyists after all. Be it hats, crinoline, pegtops, houses, or the growing of wheat and oats, what they do and wear at home we do and wear here. There are stony and arid bits of country in this Victoria on which a sheep would starve, but on which an Angora goat would thrive, and bring profit to the owner. The bad times will bring the goats, the wine, the olive, the cotton, the silk, the sausages, the dried fruits, and other good things in due season.

But if great depressions work such good results on men's outward circumstances, how much more do they improve man himself! how ameliorate his moral nature! how soften the hard merchant into the melting philanthropist! how make his heart, like that of the ancient mariner, overflow with emotion, and "bless us unawares"! Look at that speech of Mr. Sichel, as reported on the 8th of September last, on the universally interesting subject of the provision trade. "If anything goes wrong," says he, "in Bass's beer, Sinclair's hams, or Gould's butter, who is there, or what means exist here, to provide a remedy?" "Oh, cursed spite,"—he seems to say,—"that I should e'er be

born to set them right." "We should act together," says he, "not pull against each other; and should endeavour to put an end to the many paltry motives, envy, malice and spite, which it cannot be denied exist among us. If, on the contrary, we see each other often, and are thrown more together day by day, we shall soon come to act with more unanimity, and more profitably to our common interests. Instead of this we are accustomed to a selfish manner of conducting business, each reckoning his own advantage more than that of the general body. Not one of us," says he, "is at the bottom of what goes on in Bass's beer, Sinclair's hams, or Gould's butter," &c. Now this is touching, and Mr. S. P. Lord indorsed every word of these self-denying sentiments, and they passed *nem. con.* How delightful is this! Henceforth we may look for a little more public spirit among the merchants. Henceforth we may find them standing more frequently for the Legislature, and thereby acknowledging that they have duties to the country as well as towards each other. Henceforth, at any rate, the Chamber of Commerce will be a sort of commercial Agapemone, or mercantile abode of love. Saltings of invoices and secrets in prices current shall be no more. Every man who knows anything by which he may profit, doubtless, will henceforth proclaim it, with a loud voice, upon 'Change. "Dennistoun Brothers" shall be Everybody's Brothers, and shall be seen in every direction pouring oil into all sorts of wounds. Litigation shall be at an end, and rows of alms-houses, for the lawyers, shall be erected; and his Excellency shall lay the first stone, and congratulate the audience upon the present lecturer being the first recipient of the new bounty. My feelings overcome me, and I must close the picture.

Do not imagine that, because I have been drawn off to a somewhat romping digression, I have forgotton our situation. If I have shown more levity in the course of these observations than some people may think becoming amongst a ruined people, pray consider it is because I, for one, do not consider that we are ruined at all. Like the gentleman who had seen too many ghosts himself to be able to believe in them, so have I seen the colony ruined too many times to believe it is going to be ruined now. That there is distress amongst us there can be no doubt. In all periods of transition in every country there must ever be more or less of distress—distress even occasionally among industrious, provident, and worthy families. Such cases, perhaps, we have all known. But I believe the greatest outcry about the shortcomings of the colony proceeds not from this class at all. Unfortunately, every new country, as well as every old one, has in it large numbers of waifs and strays of humanity, unfitted for any mortal pursuit—a vague, listless, hoping, waiting class, always talking, never doing, save for a few hours together, and whose fate you have never any difficulty in forecasting. These sink down and succumb here, as they would anywhere else. But for those who can apply their hands or their heads to the work to be done, what is really the matter? Depression! Commercial crisis forsooth! What's a commercial crisis, compared with a cannon-ball crisis? We have heard enough and to spare, it is true, about New Caledonia, and about French fleets in Hobson's Bay. Let them come; I believe in old Caledonia, and in Old England, and also in our volunteers, as right, earnest, six o'clock in the morning fellows, who mean it. But just imagine for a moment that such a fleet were here, and that a strong detachment of French marines had

caught our seven bank-managers, and clapped them into a chain-gang, and got them all on board ship as hostages for a good rattling ransom! Here's something like a crisis if you like. What was the imprisonment of the seven bishops, about which history makes so much fuss, compared with this cooping up of our seven bankers? Imagine them, if you can, looking over the bulwarks of some "great ammiral," and pining for their parlours. This is the ludicrous side of war, and we laugh; and, strange to say, laughter and tears are never more sincere than when they are close to each other For, whilst contrasting mere distresses of peace with the horrors of war, other and awful comparisons with our own present happy condition press upon the memory. Was not Palermo bombarded the other day, and were not wives, and mothers, and little children, slaughtered among the husbands, and the sons, and the fathers? Look at Taranaki's [8] misery at our very door. Think of the fired homesteads, the dispersed and ruined households, the hopes and labours of years of patient toil annihilated in an instant among a people who, the other day, deemed themselves as secure as we consider ourselves now. Do we sufficiently and habitually consider, then, the advantages we actualy enjoy? Health, food, warmth, light, liberty, some leisure for reading, for thought, and recreation;—are these possessions nothing? Are they not, indeed, all, so far as this mere sublunary life is concerned? I am not preaching any impossible philosophy, or any anti-colonial degree of abstinence and self-mortification. I merely mean to say, that there is nothing like looking resolutely at the better side of every situation, and being thankful to God that things are no worse. It is certain that as man is at present constituted,

[8] The New Zealand war was then raging.

he cannot even properly taste pleasure, without having first known pain. We most of us command more than the people of many other countries enjoy, and as much as unsophisticated man really wants; and if at times and seasons —and such times and seasons come to all—we find ourselves unable to live up to our own doctrine, and that we are yet querulously repining under those losses, and crosses, and petty griefs and disasters, which have power over the strongest as over the weakest, let us still thankfully bear in mind that, as the wisest and most benignant of human spirits has said,—

> "This wide and universal theatre
> Presents more woeful pageants than the scene
> Wherein we play in."

Good night.

LECTURE III.

LOYALTY, ROYALTY, AND THE PRINCE'S VISITS.

MR. CHAIRMAN AND LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—If we ask of Dr. Johnson the question, "What is loyalty?" we find his answer to be rather bald, and meagre, and by no means dispensing with the necessity for further inquiry. He tells us that it is "firm and faithful adherence to a prince." He cites various instances of the application of the term by some of our leading writers. Besides Shakespeare and Clarendon, he quotes Milton and Butler, in two well-known passages—

> "Abdiel, faithful found—
> Unshaken, unseduced, unterrified—
> His loyalty he kept."

Butler is in another strain—

> "For loyalty is still the same,
> Whether it win or lose the game;
> True as the dial to the sun,
> Although it be not shone upon."

You remember that Butler, in his "Hudibras," is the champion of the Royalists as opposed to the Parliamentarians, in the great civil war generated of Charles the First's efforts

to make himself an absolute and irresponsible monarch. In the lines I have just quoted, loyalty is represented as playing a game against some other power which I must suppose Butler would have us to understand to be disloyalty, as represented in the persons of the Parliamentarians. His metaphor, howsoever ingenious it may be thought, is nevertheless equivocal. If he meant to tell us that sincere and genuine loyalty—as I understand the sentiment, and as I shall hereafter attempt to explain it—is, or ought to be, true and faithful in its expression, irrespective of any hope of favour or advantage to ourselves, I am quite ready to subscribe to the position he here lays down. But if, instead of the meaning I have suggested, he would have loyalty to be a mere blind, unquestioning sentiment, I at once demur; for what would this be but a man surrendering his reason, his dignity, his independence, nay, even his very existence as a human creature, at the feet of another human creature like himself; and all, probably, for naught? The best specimen, perhaps, of such a virtue as this is that afforded us by the Highlandman's extremely loyal wife, who coaxingly requested her husband to come out and be hanged to please the laird—an affectionate request which Donald, not seeing it exactly as she did under the particular circumstances, rather lingered about complying with.

This Highland wife's school of loyalty, then, I reject as absurd in itself, and out of harmony with the nineteenth century. And yet, I think, as we proceed we shall see that even a devotion like this points to a kind of sentiment which has not only existed and flourished, but which will naturally grow out of any patriarchal system of government in any country. We need hardly, indeed, go farther than to the admirable pictures of society in the pages of Walter Scott

to learn the character of that devotion of clansmen to their chief which, as a last surviving relic of the feudal state of society, was common in the Highlands of Scotland until a comparatively recent date. Before commerce had dethroned force, different portions of society were either at war with each other, or they only preserved peace by constant readiness for war. In such times peculiar strength, prowess, or talent, would necessarily make many individuals natural kings, chiefs, leaders of men. The mutual attachment, springing out of the mutual interests of protector and protected, must have been the first foundation of the sentiment of loyalty. But when all the conditions of society are changed, when justices of the peace and constables come to be invented, such a loyalty becomes rather a tradition and habit of thought than a strong, living, active principle. Modern civilization and such loyalty as this could hardly get on well together. Civilization, which rested on industry, would grow impatient with the loyalty which fed on rapine, and would put it down with any instrument that came to hand, as Baillie Nicol Jarvie met the claymores of Rob Roy's caterans—with the novel, but effective, and, may we not add, the highly civilized weapon of the red-hot poker.

I believe, then, that this blind and unquestioning loyalty, which was based either on personal attachment or on superstitious veneration for absolute monarchs, passed away with the society which produced it, and which could alone give it nourishment and strength. If, however, this devoted and patriarchal species of loyalty exists only in history, or in states of society similar to that which once obtained in the Highlands of Scotland, it is, nevertheless, observable that a loyalty of some sort still exists, for is it

not constantly referred to in public addresses and in after-dinner speeches? I would, then, respectfully ask you to accompany me whilst I endeavour to ascertain what is the apparent nature of much of this loyalty in our day, and what its apparent depth or strength. In our own recent case, the immediate object of the sentiment was a young man between three and four-and-twenty years old, the descendant, and to us, in some sort, the living representative of a line of princes, some of them illustrious, and some of them rather the opposite, in any respectable sense. Of the talents or the endowments of this young Prince, even were it becoming to discuss them, we are not in a position to speak with any degree of confidence. If, however, we have no actual knowledge that his intellectual qualities are greatly above, neither have we any reason for concluding that they are below the average of those of other well educated young men of the same age. Thus much, however, alone seems tolerably certain—that on the Duke of Edinburgh's first arrival here, we knew little more of him than that he was the second son of our Queen and the captain of the "Galatea." And yet, to welcome and enthusiastically greet this young man, there assembled here in Melbourne, on that first day of his landing, something not far short, perhaps, of 50,000 souls. At the same time, throughout the length and breadth of the land, the population were equally on the alert to hail his coming, when it should become his pleasure to appear among them. Now, I think, we thus see at the outset that loyalty may be felt, or the demeanour that passes for loyalty may, at any rate, be manifested in great measure independently of any moral or intellectual qualities in the object thus regarded. It is this consideration which makes the whole subject as perplexing as it is interesting

to many minds. How comes it that a simple, gentlemanly, unaffected young man, possessing the one mysterious advantage of Royal birth, should drive a reflecting, sober people frantic with the desire to gaze on him? What did we gaze at, and why did we gaze? I ask this question because I think we must all be distinctly conscious that we cannot explain the interest we take in a prince exactly as easily as we are able to account for the interest we feel in some eminent man, who has distinguished himself in any way in his generation. For this latter person, independent of and apart from any factitious considerations, we are conscious of entertaining a respect as rooted as it is involuntary and sincere. For instance, a Nelson gains a naval victory, or a Wellington a land action, which may change the balance of power in Europe; a Garibaldi, by the fascination of his individual enthusiasm and bravery, infuses a new national life into his countrymen; a first Napoleon annihilates thrones, and becomes a maker of kings—in all these cases we have exhibitions of power. These exhibitions deeply affect the interests of millions of people. The names of the principal actors are in everybody's mouth, and are mixed up in all political discussions. The minds of the millions become heated as they discuss the qualities or probable purposes of these conspicuous persons, and nothing is more natural than the desire to see those by whom such remarkable actions have been done, and of whom so much has been said and heard. So with other forms of power.

A Gladstone or a Bright sways opinion in the greatest deliberative assembly in the world. Their words may affect human interests throughout the globe. A Tennyson wells over with poetry which sounds the depths of all human hearts; a Dickens is the master of our laughter and our

tears, as he passes before us a portrait-gallery now as familiar to us as that of Shakespeare. In all these cases we delight to look on, and strive to know still more, and as far as our eyes and ears will help us—and no other knowledge ever seems equal to that we get through our eyes and ears—the remarkable persons who do these exceptional and extraordinary things. All this is very intelligible. But many people demand (some of our English critics among them), "Is it equally intelligible that we should throng and crowd together, and almost choke each other with dust, and raise triumphal arches, and make gold trowels, and pawn our pianos, and go into general convulsions on account of one whose pre-eminence consists of the accident of rank alone?" One is reminded, whilst urging such an inquiry, of the Barber's soliloquy on the nobleman, in Beaumarchais's "Marriage of Figaro." "What has your lordship done to earn all this? Vous, vous êtes donné la peine de naître." ("You took the trouble to be born.") Are we provided with much more satisfactory explanations than that of the Barber?

Now, these, and similar questions, have been put by our English critics about ourselves, as if the conduct upon which they were commenting was something peculiar to colonists, and unknown in the mother-country. One able and caustic writer in the London *Spectator* went the length of saying, some twelve months back, that we plainly had "Prince upon the brain." I therefore propose to show you, before I proceed to inquire further into the nature of this moral phenomenon, that what some English journalists have called "the extravagance of our enthusiasm" in connexion with the Duke of Edinburgh's first visit to these shores, by no means exceeds English extravagance on like

occasions. Who can forget the popular enthusiasm in England on the occasion of the marriage of the Prince of Wales? And if English journalists are at a loss for British parallels to some of the more emphatic of our loyal demonstrations, such parallels may easily be found scattered up and down in English memoirs and diaries. What can well be more ludicrous than the account Miss Burney—afterwards Madame D'Arblay, one of the ladies-in-waiting on Queen Charlotte—gives of the manner of George the Third's bathing at Weymouth. Whenever he went out to take his morning dip in the sea, the people used to lie in wait for him, and a second bathing-machine with a band in it, always pursued him into the water, the band vigorously playing, "God save the King," until His Majesty had finished his royal headers, and returned to land.

Again, no obsequiousness of ours seems to exceed that described by Miss Burney as occurring on another occasion during this Weymouth visit. A deputation, consisting of the mayor and town council, waited on Queen Charlotte to present an address, congratulating her on the recent restoration of His Majesty's health. The mayor, as he approached the Queen to present the address, was whispered by gold-stick, or silver-stick, or some other stick in waiting—the name of whose office I forget—"that the presenters of the address must kneel on one knee whilst passing Her Majesty." To the horror and consternation of the whole Court party, "the right worshipful" merely stiffly bowed, and passed on. The official stick pursued the offender, tapped him on the shoulder, and angrily whispered, "You should have knelt, sir." "I can't," cries the mayor, in an agony, "I've got a wooden leg." To complete the catastrophe—it must have appeared to the people

of the court as if the end of the world was at hand—the whole of the councillors, taking the mayor as their standard, filed along in the same fashion; but whether from ignorance of court etiquette, or delicate respect for their chief, Miss Burney does not say.

Here, then, have we equal extravagance—if that must be the word—of loyal demonstration in the mother-country as in her colony. Our own acts and the home instances may very well keep each other in countenance. They are curious facts in the natural history of the human animal, and are well worthy of further examination. To say that such manifestations are peculiar to those who live under kingly government, will not account for them. In the United States a few years back, as dense, and even denser, crowds congregated in streets and assembly-rooms to look at the Prince of Wales. The feeling which brought these American crowds together could not be loyalty. What, then, was it? Was it merely that universal, yet vague feeling of curiosity which is excited by anything of which we have heard much, and know little, and would learn more? Is it that we unconsciously estimate every one, from a king down to a policeman, according to the stamp of authority which society and law have put upon them? Has this public sanction in some vague way led us to conceive of a prince, that with all the advantages of education and training any mortal can command, he will naturally have something in his own person to show for all this, and that there must surely be some congruity and proportion between the individual himself and his most exalted station? Or is it that we throng together in thousands to look at a prince, in obedience to that infinite susceptibility to excitement within us which draws us out in thousands to welcome

the arrival of a new governor, to meet an "All England Eleven," to witness an execution or a review, or even to gaze at the outside of a house said to be haunted? So omnivorous is the human imagination, that there is scarcely anything lying outside its daily experience upon which it cannot be whipped up into temporary excitement; an excitement, too, frequently as superficial and fleeting as it is noisy and demonstrative. I well remember revolving this subject in my own mind on the occasion on which the Governor and the Royal Commission, of which I was a member, were at the Heads awaiting the first arrival of the "Galatea." The commissioners were curiously stowed away for the night, throughout the numerous bedrooms of Mr. Adman's Queenscliff Hotel, men of all shades of politics, Loyal Liberals and Constitutionalists together, within easy hail of each other. For once—

> "Opposing factions nearly were allied,
> And thin partitions did their bounds divide."

Ostensibly we were all here to await the coming of the Royal visitor, in order to escort him to Melbourne. What depth or earnestness of sentiment, thought I, is there at the bottom of this proceeding? In how many and in which of the commissioners' minds may the feeling most operate? Whose loyalty will keep him awake to-night? Here, like Don Quixote watching his armour, are we supposed to be watching the arrival of the Prince. How many people under this roof are seriously thinking about this business, or speculating as to what it may indicate or portend?

Now that the Australias are assuming almost the proportions of independent states, a Royal personage condescends

to come, or is judiciously shipped, to look at us. We are regarded at home as a somewhat democratic community; is Royalty commissioned to fascinate us by its superior morals and manners? Now that the supply of princes in Europe is so rapidly exceeding the demand, may it not be that home governments are on the look-out for "pleasant fields and pastures new" for Royal supernumeraries? In the midst of my reflections, which kept me awake some time—for, like Brindley, I can think most comfortably in bed—a familiar voice struck on my ear. It was that of a high legislative functionary, the rotundity and comeliness of whose figure proved that devotion to our Constitution by no means necessitated any foolish and uncalled for neglect of his own. As the energy and impatience of this high legislative voice showed me that, for the nonce, its owner was in some way, and for some moving reason or other, at present among the "non-contents," curiosity drew my head out of the bed-clothes to listen. What ailed him at this dead hour of the night? He soon made his case clear. "Waiter! waiter! where is my night-shirt? What has become of my night shirt?" exclaimed he. "I can't sleep without my night-shirt." Now I am free to admit—as they say in Parliament—that I strongly sympathized with the caller, for I labour under the same sort of infirmity myself. "Has he," thought I, "forgotten to bring a night-shirt with him, or has some fellow-commissioner furtively appropriated that indispensable garment?" In the intensity of my sympathy I was on the point of getting up and offering him my own, but prudently reflecting that it would be a tight and uncomfortable fit for him I kept it myself, and sank to sleep vaguely wondering about this mission we were all upon. Here was one of the most loyal of us,

an important legislative functionary to boot, and yet his loyalty had never in my hearing imparted such moving tones to his voice as those which the loss of his bedgown extracted from him that night. Do I condemn or complain of this (at first sight) small querulousness on a great occasion? By no means. Which of us can say with perfect sincerity that our common creature wants have never kept fine sentiments waiting until a more convenient time?

On the following day occurred other events, which showed us how we are apt to consider ourselves first and loyalty afterwards. With fear and trembling I noted this as we came up the bay. You remember that bay programme, and the now historical escorting flotilla of steamers. Perhaps some of you were on board a portion of that flotilla. If so, you will not easily forget the scene; for, on the whole, it was certainly one of the most animating and interesting the eye could rest on. The day, opening sullenly in clouds, had cleared itself up; and our blue sky, and the almost equally blue waters of our bay, seemed to join in the general joy. The hour had come, and the man; and as within a few minutes to one o'clock the noble frigate rolled and plunged through the rip, reverently and loyally mustered our flotilla to take the Royal visitor into affectionate custody. Salutes blazed away from the Queenscliff battery, from the "Victoria," and the "Pharos;" and the "Galatea" herself thundered a salute as Her Majesty's representative approached her tall side. But here, unfortunately for Captain Norman's beautifully arranged programme, the "Galatea" seemed to become altogether unconscious of our existence. Instead of waiting to be escorted—according to our prearranged plans—the frigate took to her royal heels, and went straight ahead for Melbourne, leaving us all in the lurch.

Thus this long-meditated and elaborately prepared escort was not only knocked into "a cocked hat" at the very outset (as one figurative gentleman called it), but at the shortest notice it was converted into a hopeless chase—a chase, too, as ludicrous as that of the wooden-legged man pursuing the hare, where the longer he ran the farther he fell behind. Never did I behold longer faces than on that occasion. I trembled for the cause of colonial loyalty. I had been for many days past a member of a commission of thirteen, consisting of judges, of Ministers (past and present), of the President of the Legislative Council, of the Speaker of the Legislative Assembly, of the mayor, and ex-mayor of Melbourne. Most of us had given many meetings for the exclusive purpose of making the best arrangements we could devise for receiving and entertaining with becoming respect our illustrious visitor. A very prominent portion of these arrangements consisted of this flotilla, most liberally contributed by the owners of the different steamers. Commodore Norman having previously unfolded to us on paper his impressive plans for the port and starboard lines of vessels, the time had now arrived to see how it all looked on blue water, and now the blue water knew it not. Each and every steamer seemed to come driving on, smoking away on her own particular and private account—the little "Pharos" nearly last, and apparently in the highest state of asthma, but struggling along with a "never say die" look about her intermittent paroxysms of smoke which was absolutely touching. Nobody said much, so I suppose everybody thought the more. One dejected and almost spirit-crushed commissioner did, with suppressed emotion, say to me that "Such behaviour was not nice in the Prince at all." I could think of no more original rejoinder than—

"I'd excuse you, my dear, for disguising your love;
But why do you kick us downstairs?"

Royalty, decidedly, was not now shining on us, and we were, as it seemed to me, doing, or endeavouring to do, Butler's sun-dial under difficulties. I am disposed to think that many even moderate and unexacting people thought on this occasion that the "Galatea" authorities might, and even ought, to have reflected that both the Government and the owners of these steamers had put themselves to much trouble and expense in the spirited exhibition of these reception courtesies, and that a loyalty to be warranted proof against any amount of contempt and indifference from its object would, possibly, in our age and generation, require a larger amount of nursing and weather-fending than it was likely to receive. Other and subsequent incidents connected with the Royal visit were calculated to excite similar reflections. On the Western tour the Prince and his suite and attendants rushed through Colac towards that day's haven of refuge, Mr. Robertson's house. Divers Colacians were known to be cruising in the neighbourhood with "a loyal address." The Prince, however, ran the blockade—the only blockade, I believe, he contrived to run throughout his country trips. Did he exult? If so, I cannot but think he did not know all. Colac loyalty apparently never before received so rude a shock.

A day or two after, the *Colac Observer* came out in the following startling terms:—"The well-known loyalty of this journal forbids its attempting to give publicity to the bitterness of feeling openly expressed, and replied to only by an ominous silence on the part of the more guarded, who felt that an opportunity had been lost of cementing more closely the union which exists between this loyal colony

and the glorious empire from which the majority of its inhabitants are privileged to hail." Now here we see what great events may from simple causes spring. To save himself four or five minutes of a hot and dusty interview in Colac, the Prince had alienated a large number of persons. He is told that his few minutes' stay would have furnished an opportunity of cementing more closely this colony to the mother-country. But he would not stay, and therefore, although the Colac cement may be undiminished in quantity, the "ominous silence" shows that some of the adhesive quality of the article is gone.

Now, we smile at this little extract from the *Colac Observer*, and I confess I laughed at it very heartily when I first read it. But let us make the Colac case our own. Suppose that, on the day of the *levée*, the Prince, at the end of the presentations, had rushed down the middle of the Exhibition building to luncheon, and said he would not be bored with addresses at all, how would all our be-gowned and gorgeously got up presenters of addresses have looked under such portentous circumstances? Would they have felt their own cement affected? Had they, like the *Colac Observer*, done "the ominous" towards the British Empire, that self-complacent British Empire might e'en have laughed at us, as we laugh at the ominous silence of Colac.

Everything is comparative. Is there any more incongruity in Colac than in Melbourne, or in Melbourne than in London, fearing for the integrity of the British Empire by reason of a Prince's impatience in one place or in another? Taking with us, then, the little indications of indifference or impatience to which I have referred as furnished from Adman's Hotel, from the bay, and from Colac, is it too much to say that loyalty of this kind is in large measure

formal and mechanical? that it more unpleasantly resembles the mere instinctive bustling and buzzing of bees round their queen, than an operation of man's reason; and that withal, it is at the same time so complicated with our own self-love that it is very apt to turn absolutely sour, unless the vessel that contains it has been previously well cleaned out from small vanities and foolish desires for personal notice? I will not, however, venture to say that I do not greatly admire or respect this noisy and demonstrative loyalty, without also giving you specific, and I trust not altogether unsatisfactory reasons, for the want of faith within me. I shall attempt, then, first to show by evidence that this bee loyalty not only almost necessarily corrupts and deforms the moral character both of the receiver and of the offerer of it, but that it is a sentiment—if sentiment we can call it—so superficial, so easily disturbed and displaced, that it affords no trustworthy guarantee to any sovereign that he may count upon it in any hour of need.

And first for the manner in which it corrupts the character of the man who offers it. The word courtier is synonymous with everything that is hollow, insincere, and tricky in man. *Exeat aulâ qui vult esse pius* (he must go from court who would be honest). Histories, biographies, and diaries of statesmen and high officials, abound with the best authenticated anecdotes touching the absurd and contemptible situations people about courts have allowed themselves to be placed in, rather than run any, the slightest, risk of falling out of the royal favour.

I will, as my memory serves me, give you one or two of these anecdotes, to illustrate more distinctly what I here desire to convey to you.[1]

[1] See many more illustrations in Greville's and other memoirs.

A good story is told of a king who was once curious to know which was the taller, himself or a certain courtier. "Let us measure," suggested the king. The king stood up to be measured first; but when the person who was selected to take their height came to measure the nobleman, he found it quite impossible, as he first rose on tiptoe, then crouched down, now shrugged up his shoulders to the right, then twisted himself to the left. Upon his friend afterwards asking him the reason of these unaccountable gesticulations, he replied, "I could not tell whether the king wished me to be taller or shorter than himself; and all the time I was making those odd movements I was watching his countenance to see what I ought to do."

Here is another instance, not much less absurd, although it also shows that a man of a really independent spirit can sometimes show it even at court. In the memoirs of Count Grammont, it is related of Louis XIV. that, on the occasion of a dispute with one of his courtiers over a game of chess, no one of the bystanders would give an opinion. "Oh!" cried the king, "here comes Count Hamilton; he shall decide which of us is in the right." "Your Majesty is in the wrong," the count replied, without looking at the board; on which the king, remonstrating with him on the impossibility of his judging till he saw the state of the game, he added, "Does your Majesty suppose that if you were in the right all these noblemen would stand by and say nothing?"

If you desire, you may find plenty more such indications of the courtier character in the classes of works I have mentioned.

And now, on the other hand, for the general effect on the recipient of this kind of flattery. It evidently fosters an egotism of so peculiar, and frequently of so morbid a cha-

racter, that it very often assumes even the appearance of insanity. It puts kings and princes above and beyond those conditions and sanctions of social life which surround and wholesomely limit and control the pride and vanity of ordinary men. Upon the Emperor Alexander of Russia once being offered, when in England, a glass of wine by a servant in livery, he started, it is said, as if he had trodden on a snake. The mischievous idiot King of Denmark, who married the unfortunate Caroline Matilda, the sister of our George III., among other royal recreations, used to amuse himself by ordering people to box with him. If they refused, he punished them for disobeying the royal commands; and if they complied and hit him too hard, he punished them for assaulting the royal person.

It is an almost gross rudeness in court etiquette to say anything to a royal person which can possibly imply that his health is liable to disturbance like that of ordinary flesh and blood.

In the "Table Talk" of Rogers, the banker poet, he describes the following amusing incident:—"Once when in company with William IV.," says Rogers, "I quite forgot that it is against all etiquette to ask a sovereign about his health; and on his saying to me, 'Mr. Rogers, I hope you are well,' I replied, 'Very well, I thank your Majesty; I trust that your Majesty is quite well also.' Never was a king in greater confusion; he didn't know where to look, and stammered out, 'Yes, yes,—only a little rheumatism.'"

Again, in "Raikes's Diary," where he comments on the curious delusions of vanity under which the Fourth George at times laboured, we find the following remarkable testimony:—"There is no doubt that for several years before

his death, whether from early indulgence in luxury, or from a malady inherent in his family, his mind would occasionally wander, and many anecdotes have been current of the unfortunate impressions under which he laboured. After the glorious termination, in 1815, of the long continental war, by the battle of Waterloo, it would not, perhaps, be unpardonable vanity in him to have thought that the English nation had mainly contributed to this great event; but he certainly at times, in conversation, arrogated to himself personally the glory of subduing Napoleon's power and giving peace to the world. It was upon one of these assumptions being reported to the sarcastic Sheridan, that he archly remarked, "That is all well enough, but what he particularly piques himself upon is the last abundant harvest."

We may add to Raikes by saying that this form of delusion George the Fourth inherited from his father. The latter once, on the receipt of a despatch announcing some advantage over the American colonists, then in arms against the mother country, rushed into the queen's room excitedly, exclaiming, "Charlotte, Charlotte, I've beaten all the Americans!" And when I speak of the morbid and ungovernable self-will generated in the minds of princes by the flattery of subjects, I know not where you may obtain clearer proofs of the strength and the manner of working of this feeling than from the career of this very king. I apprehend that few men possessed the domestic virtues in larger measure than George the Third. They were the basis of his great popularity. He was a good husband, an indulgent father, a kind friend, and, moreover, a man of the simplest tastes and habits. His oft-quoted talent for making an excellent dinner off a boiled leg of mutton and turnips delighted his subjects, affording such clear proof as it did, that a royal

stomach is human after all. One such touch of nature—even through the digestive organs—made him and all his subjects kin. Such, then, being the original personal qualities of George III., one would naturally think that he was about the least likely subject to be spoiled by the regal attributes and liabilities. And yet no man was more enslaved to a perfectly ungovernable wilfulness of character where his claim to rule was actively opposed, or even questioned. Witness his obstinate, persistent, dogged determination to continue the American war long after Lord North, his Prime Minister, would have abandoned the contest as at once unreasonable, hopeless, and condemned by all the enlightened statesmen of the day. In the mind of a man naturally kind had grown up a passionate sense of jealous authority, which could not brook the merest show of opposition; and the destruction of thousands upon thousands of human lives on both sides was as nothing compared with the intolerable abomination of a subject having notions of taxation different from those of his king.

Again, look at the manner in which this idol-worship of princes commonly relaxes in, and sometimes even obliterates from, their minds, not only a proper regard for the opinions of others, but even the ordinary virtues of gratitude, honesty, truth, and friendship. A prince too frequently comes to regard the world at large as a huge bank of pleasure, on which he may overdraw to any extent without his cheques ever being dishonoured. Why is a prince to have such a vulgar virtue as gratitude, when the mere fact of his accepting a service or benefit is, in the ethics of most courts, a quite sufficient acknowledgment and return of the service rendered? Look at the whole line of the Stuarts. Did ever a more hopelessly selfish, ungrateful set of men affront the

moral sense of a nation? Even in the eyes of his apologist, Clarendon, Charles the First was a man who knew no touch of real friendship for any human creature; he was truthful only when he could gain nothing by falsehood. The using of Strafford for the ends of his own royal will, or the signing of the death-warrant of Strafford, when those ends miscarried, was equally justifiable and expedient for a king's convenience.

Charles the Second has been by superficial popular opinion —ignorant of Pepys's account of him—considered rather better than his father, because among other good-natured sayings reported of him, is his death-bed speech, "Don't let poor Nelly starve." Now, if he had really thought much more about poor Nelly than he thought of one of his spaniels, he might as well, before the time arrived for making this speech, have settled a trifle on Nelly, and so have put her above the possible neglect or caprice of survivors.

Follow the fortunes of this family as you may, in their exile on the Continent, in their heavy drafts on the blind and stupid loyalty of the Scotch Highlanders, from the flight of James the Second until the last attempt of Charles Stuart in 1745, and you see only a coarse, steadfast, undisguised egotism—as if on an assumed inherent privilege of the Lord's anointed—manifested throughout and in all things. These were the undeniable things openly and commonly uttered about the Stuarts by all men in the days of the Regency. Had it been decent, or courtly, or loyal to do so, even worse things might with perfect truth have been openly, as they were privately, said and known, of the Regent himself.

That a prince should cast off old loves of which he is tired, is not much thought of, and some allowance is, perhaps, not

unjustly made for the fact that he is not generally able, as are men of less exalted rank, to choose a partner in life for himself. But a prince is never under the necessity of leaving an old lover to want and misery, and this did George the Fourth by Mary Robinson. He was equally heartless by a still more serious connexion; for although he authorized his companion, Mr. Fox, to go down to the House of Commons, and deny, "on authority," Mr. Pitt's assertion of the prince's marriage with Mrs. Fitzherbert; yet it soon afterwards clearly appeared that Mr. Fox had been duped, and the lady's feelings and reputation outraged, inasmuch as the marriage had really taken place.

Again, mark this prince's conduct among associates of his own sex. The case must be a bad one, indeed, which can call for the expulsion of the heir apparent from the Jockey Club, and yet George, Prince of Wales, was so expelled. He mixed freely with the Foxes, Sheridans, and Fitzpatricks of his day, principally with the pious desire to vex his father, for his subsequent conduct showed that he was never a whig at heart, assuming that he had a heart. He let his old companion Sheridan—his advocate and creature in the House of Commons, and the panderer to some of the least creditable of his royal pleasures—die almost wanting the necessaries of life; and his manner of leaving Beau Brummell to a like fate is so characteristic as to be worth more than a passing glance. When Brummell (presuming on an intimacy which to the poor beau had all the appearance of that ease and mutuality of licence common among equals) said, "Wales, ring the bell," and Wales did ring the bell, but only to order Brummell's carriage, the latter realized for life the danger of presuming too much on royal condescension, however familiarly that condescension

may be manifested. Too effectually poor cast-off Brummell learned that a prince never forgets the distance in rank between himself and an ordinary subject, any more than a cat forgets when you are romping with her that she has sharp claws within those velvet paws of hers. Banished at once, and for good, from the sunshine of the royal countenance, and being unfit for any other sort of company, he drifts into a sort of small consular employment somewhere on the Continent, and finally dies in obscurity and want—George IV. thinking no more of him than of a cast-off old shoe. Whilst unable to pity the poor fallen parasite, we are compelled into despising the miserable smallness of "the first gentleman in Europe," as he was called by the court journalists of the day.

With such precedents of princely bearing, then, as these before our eyes, why should a people, with any pretensions to knowledge of human nature, be so much put out, as many of our citizens were the other day, on reading that 3500*l.* had been put on the Imperial Estimates to defray the expense of the presents made by the Duke of Edinburgh when in Australia? When Captain Cook took out his stock of glass beads, and looking-glasses, and red cloth, with which to win the affections of the artless savages of the South Sea Islands, who ever expected he was to bear the cost of, as well as distribute, these harmless trifles? "But the destruction of the sentiment of the thing!" some one may, perhaps, object. Well, there is something in that. I must admit this 3500*l.* looks too much as if Romeo had kept a pocket ledger, and had therein duly entered to the debit of Juliet the cost of any little presents he might have made her during his moonlight courtship, with the object afterwards of putting the values on old Capulet's

"estimates" if the business should ever come to marriage settlements. But to proceed. I think it can hardly have escaped you a moment back, when I was reporting Sheridan's facetious sarcasm at the expense of George IV., how the satellites of kings are accustomed to relieve their sense of humiliation by ridiculing those idols behind their backs, in the presence of which the irreverent scoffers can hardly stand upright. A king, therefore, and more especially an absolute king, must live, move, and have his very being in an atmosphere of falsehood, and, if he happen to fall on evil times, he may perhaps have many courtiers, but assuredly he will have but few friends. Cast back your minds to a period which can be easily covered by the memories of many now present. How many thrones have fallen within our own generation! Where are now the family of Louis Philippe of France? Where the ex-royal family of Naples? With what apparent unconcern did all Europe, a few years back, behold the late King of Hanover, the first cousin of our queen, driven forth from his little kingdom! How coolly is Count Bismarck, even now, proceeding to appropriate this ex-king's immense private property, on the plea that he and other refugees—"reptiles," as the count calls them—are using the income from this wealth in the subsidising of journals to vilify and undermine the power of Prussia. With what cold-blooded indifference did those half savages, the Mexicans, shoot the poor ill-starred Emperor, who had been exported to them by his patron, Louis Napoleon! How summarily was King Otho deposed by his restless subjects, and another prince placed on the little throne of Greece; and last, but not least, look at the most recent Royal ruin of all—the expulsion and flight of Isabella of Spain, "the last of the Bourbons," as she is called. Dis-

reputable as this woman was in her life, and altogether contemptible in intellect, yet you have to consider how hard it is to change a nation's habits; and Spain has been for so many centuries a monarchy that it is even yet problematical whether she will, or rather can, settle down to any other form of government.

Enough, however, has already been achieved to show that courtiers melt away before revolutions like morning mists before the mounting sun; and it is certain that Europe, even in her darkest recesses, has lost the old, simple, confiding, uninquiring sentiment with which men once regarded the position and character of a crowned head. And yet the fine expression of Shakespeare, "There is a divinity doth hedge a king," is, with some qualification, as true now as ever it was. But he must be a king who lives and rules according to the age into which he is born. He must not be a solecism in government, running counter to the best intellect and the noblest purposes of the society over which Providence has called upon him to preside. In one word, he must be what we call a constitutional sovereign—such a sovereign as, I think, all here present will admit our Queen Victoria to be. With no spirit of adulation would I profane this part of my subject. But think for an instant of the contrast between the two contemporaneous queens—the Queen of England and the Queen of Spain—the one an outcast from her kingdom, seeking an asylum in a foreign land; the other, reigning secure in the hearts of her people, and with a nation for her body-guard. Have we far to seek to understand the difference? Speaking from this side of the world about our Queen, we may, perhaps, without indelicacy, use almost the freedom of history. I shall do so with all respect, and I am sure with all truth. In

her early youth it was the peculiar good fortune of the Princess Victoria to be surrounded by wise and constitutional teachers, and their counsels certainly fell on a kindly soil. Her uncle, the Duke of Sussex, of all the then Royal family the most liberal in his views, and the most commonly coming in contact with the people at public dinners and at other popular gatherings, was one of her most trusted advisers. She was carefully trained, therefore, with special reference to the future high destiny that awaited her. We cannot read the graphic account which has been published, of the ease, the dignity, and the thorough self-possession with which the girl queen presided at her first Cabinet Council, without perceiving distinctly the care with which she had been trained to her exalted station. It was her singularly happy fortune, too, to be wedded when young to a partner whose remarkable abilities and sound judgment were equalled, if not exceeded, by a kindly disposition and an elevated and conscientious character, ever mindful of the critical and most important position he occupied. All their subsequent history, apart from such revelations as come down from court circles to society at large, has been made familiar to us all in a narrative which affords an almost perfect picture of thoroughly happy wedded life. And throughout this life, so beneficially influential as it must have been on society, Queen Victoria held, and has conscientiously discharged, the duties of a British sovereign, holding her high estate under the law. The will of the people, as expressed through their Parliament, has ever been to her the object of her peculiar solicitude, of which truth many illustrations have been afforded during her prosperous and memorable reign.

The most interesting evidence of this has been afforded

us within the last few months. I do not know how it struck my hearers, but, speaking for myself, I must say that I never read anything with greater interest, or anything which ever yet excited in myself so lively a feeling of admiration for the character of the Queen, as the account we recently received through the English newspapers, detailing the particulars of her interview with Mr. Bright on the occasion of his becoming a Cabinet Minister. Does history afford quite such another case of extremes meeting? Is such another proof to be found of the elasticity of the British Constitution? Thirty years back politicians, either in or out of Parliament, would as soon have thought of William Cobbett, or of Orator Hunt, as of Mr. Bright being tendered office under the Crown, much less an office which, if accepted, must necessarily bring the holder of it into habitual communication with Majesty itself. And in the present case, in estimating the conduct of the Queen, we are not to lose sight of the fact that her previous habits and associations, and those of her new Ministry, must necessarily have caused the Queen and subject to form very different opinions from each other on many most important questions. The Queen's whole life and conversation have been among the very *élite* of England's wealthy, powerful, and (in favour of their own order) naturally prejudiced aristocracy. On the other hand, Mr. Bright, born and bred in the middle class, has, from his earliest manhood, steadily held most liberal, not to say extreme opinions; has sometimes stood almost alone in his resolute opposition to the war policy of successive ministries; has frequently denounced the large army and navy establishments as being maintained merely as a mode of supporting the younger and poorer scions of the governing classes out of the public

purse; has habitually praised the economy and efficiency of various Transatlantic institutions, and has dealt so many and such vigorous blows at the aristocracy that they could not possibly have grieved had he broken a blood-vessel, and dropped down dead in the midst of one of his ablest philippics. No wonder, therefore, that Mr. Gladstone felt some very natural embarrassment, when the thought first entered his head of offering Mr. Bright a post in the Cabinet. On the one hand he saw a man who by talent, by influence, and by character—for character[2] still counts for something in England, in a public man, and more especially in a minister—was already indicated by the public mind for high office; on the other hand was Her Majesty, who might not unreasonably—if swayed merely by personal considerations—object to Mr. Bright's appointment. But what course did she take? With a frankness and a candour, and a subordination of every other feeling to her sense of public duty, she at once expressed her willingness to receive Mr. Bright as one of her advisers. Attended by one of her daughters she gave him a personal and special interview, and as we read of Mr. Bright's happy compliments to the amiable young princess, we almost see Milton's genial and sagacious elephant "wreathing his proboscis lithe, to make them sport." Such an historical picture as this is to me, at the least, as delightful as that big piece of work of Mr. Haydon's hanging on our walls, called the banishment of Aristides.

The loyalty, then, of which I spoke at the outset of these observations, as the loyalty I should seek to explain and defend, as distinguished from the bee-loyalty of which I

[2] This does not count for so much as it should do in colonial politics.

have spoken, is that sentiment which any, the wisest man, may reasonably feel and heartily express, viz., the fidelity of a citizen to a sovereign like this. For it is the loyalty which at once respects itself and its object, as expressly symbolizing the morality and dignity of the state, and whilst not exacting too much, with a "proud submission" gives homage where homage is felt to be due. It is a loyalty which is alone consistent with the stability of empires. For does not that philosophy which teaches by example show us that most of the revolutions and changes of dynasties we read of in history were the inevitable results of princes and peoples losing sight of or disregarding the duties owing by each to the other—subjects too often forgetting that princes were only men, and princes as often appearing to think that subjects were not men at all? "The misfortunes of princes," said that poor Isabella the other day, writing from her place of exile, "fall heavily on their subjects." Poor royal refugee. She would have been nearer the mark had she said, "The misfortunes of princes too frequently arise from their mistaking themselves for the state." Committing this fatal error, their power is Hobbes's leviathan turned upside down—a pyramid trying to stand on its apex instead of on its base.

Now, in the remarks which I have thus far made on this subject, I have considered it merely in connexion with monarchical government. And but that I should not in the length of this address be properly respecting the "Early Closing Movement," I could say much—but I will say very little—on loyalty under other forms of government, and more especially under a republic. It has been my good fortune at different times in my life to be thrown into the company of cultivated and well informed Americans, moving

in political circles in England. It is, of course, quite natural and becoming that, born and nurtured under a republic, they should prefer her institutions before all others. Accordingly they would sometimes, in a quite polite and good-humoured spirit, in the course of political discussions, quietly quiz our English loyalty, even of the more rational kind, as a something scarcely comprehensible—a sort of mild and harmless madness, perplexing to political philosophers. At the same time they would delicately insinuate that in America there were no subjects, that every citizen was a sovereign, and, therefore, entirely master of himself, which is the very essence of true liberty. I confess there was a time when such representations as these made some impression on me. And even now, perhaps, some of us may be prepared to grant, conditionally, that a republican form of government is theoretically the best form of government that human ingenuity has ever invented. But the condition I would contend for as accompanying such an admission, is an important one, and it is this—that the community to live under such a government should be at once thoroughly wise, thoroughly honest, thoroughly unselfish, and thoroughly free from all disturbing passions in the administration of that government. In the exact proportion in which any people fall short of this description must, as I think, republican government fail to answer the expectations of its friends. The theory of republican government necessarily presupposes that unfettered play of political forces which shall bring the wisest and the best of the citizens to the management of the state. But that same play of the political forces which, amongst good and unselfish politicians, would yield the best and wisest men for rulers, will and must, among selfish politicians, give us inferior men even

in the highest places. Thus all the most respectable American writers are agreed that, for many years past, no man of fine talents or of large and statesmanlike qualifications, has been elected to the presidential chair of the United States. At the same time, this "effect defective" is attributed by the same authorities to the patent fact, that the self-regarding jealousies of the ablest men have led to compromises which put mediocrity at the head, because higher ability would not yield to his fellow from any regard to the state.

Now, a temporary monarch of a republic, attaining to his elevation under these circumstances, is certainly not an object to evoke any very enthusiastic sentiment of loyalty; and accordingly we do not find that American citizens either write or speak of their Presidents in a spirit either of reverence or respect. What, then, is the proper object of American loyalty? They are consistent in answering, "It is the sovereign people themselves." It is a thirty-million-headed sovereign, instead of a sovereign of one head.

Let us look at this loyalty a little closer, and see what the article is like. We are told by American travellers, and it is not denied by American statesmen, that every citizen—being, of course, a thirty-millionth part of a sovereign—conceives that he has the right (and a very inconvenient number of thirty-millionth parts exercise this right) of calling on the President at the White House, and having an interview with him, although these visitors may not, in fact, have any business whatever to transact. Only a few months back I was reading in an English newspaper an utterance of our old friend and fellow-colonist, George Francis Train, whilst protesting against the imprisonment to which he was recently subjected in England, and I was amused by

he form of a threat which he used, to the effect, "that he should write to his servant, Mr. Johnson"—the Mr. Johnson referred to being no other than the then President of the United States. Now, our loyalty may be slavery, according to the George Francis Train frame of mind; but does not his expression very strongly savour of absolute tyranny—and is that much better? From what can this monstrous feeling arise except from pride or vanity, or both? From what but a rooted notion that the individual citizen has a sort of undivided interest or proprietorship in the person of the President, who is assumed to be always liable to be inspected and spoken to, and to have his hand shaken by any of his owners whenever they have leisure or inclination to drop in upon him for the purpose. It will not do to say in defence of this practice that it is intended as complimentary to the officer. He has other and higher business than to receive mere time-consuming calls. No, I believe the true motive of such calls to be what I have stated, an "I'm as good as you" sort of feeling, the indulgence of which degrades a great officer down to some mere show thing in a public museum.

Rather vividly recurred to my mind this mode of dealing with Presidents, when I saw all persons whatsoever, the most delicate and weakly women as well as the strongest men, on various occasions and in almost every company, always standing in the presence of the Duke of Edinburgh. Can there be no golden mean, thought I, which will enable loyal subjects to express all becoming respect for the highest rank and position, without a superfluous self-abasement which is not altogether free from the ludicrous? May we not show all reasonable reverence to the Pope without kissing his toe? Must we always either stand in the presence

of Princes and Presidents, or for ever see their right arms wrung out of their shoulder-joints by an endless succession of hand-shakers, who claim to exercise their sovereignty by this pump-handle process? If there can be no mean between these extremes in manners, the choice is unquestionably a narrow and unpleasant one. In the one case, we seem to raise a mere human creature—perhaps altogether irrespective of merit—into what Lord Bacon calls "a God upon earth;" in the other case, we tolerate a democratic tyrant who only worships himself, whilst affecting a civility to the Constitutional head of the state. After a little reflection, however, I decided for myself—I do not say I am right; it is much a matter of taste—that were I compelled to choose between the two, I would rather stand before a stupid king until I was ready to drop, than I would see a possibly very wise President bored to death by an impudent intruder, calling himself the public. In the one case we abate our pretensions out of a regard for what we deem necessary and convenient restraints in human intercourse; in the other case, we defy all such restraints in the contemplation of our beautiful and all-powerful selves. And as ceremony is a portion of the necessary machinery of society, I would prefer even the pliant demeanour of a courtier of the old sort to the insolent and ignorant self-assertion which assumes to be always carrying sovereignty about in its own private and particular stomach.

I have dwelt more particularly on this phase of Republicanism, because our American cousins are sometimes rather prone to flout us poor creatures of monarchy as down-trodden, and as yet unacquainted, in our besotted loyalty, with the true principles of civil liberty. In this, I confess, their manner of going to work too unpleasantly reminds

me of the mode in which Diogenes lectured Plato. "Thus I trample on your splendour and pride," cried the snarling and self-complacent old cynic. "With still greater pride, oh Diogenes," returned Plato to the celebrated tenant of the tub. Royalists and Republicans, then, respectively, may just as well agree to mind their own business, and correct, as best they can, the defects in the morals and manners of their own governing men. There may, perhaps, be in the one country too coarse a sense of what is required in the rulers of a great state. There is, I humbly venture to think, too much obsequiousness to, and a too lax toleration of, the shortcomings of Royal persons in other countries.

The latter important consideration is our business, and the business of every thoughtful Englishman, to endeavour to understand, and, if possible, to correct. But you may say, How is it possible to understand the ways of Royal persons? and are not the causes of their modes of feeling and action too subtle and inscrutable to admit of any remedy from art? Now, in answering such a question, I must further respectfully submit that evils which have been either produced or aggravated by art, ought to be corrigible by art: and that you may not think I am disposed to talk in enigmas, I come at once to the point by saying that I do thoroughly believe that a disastrous effect has been for many years produced on the *morale* of English princes by the Royal Marriage Act, which, in the year 1772, and at the suggestion of the proud, short-sighted, leg-of-mutton-loving king already referred to, was passed under very discreditable circumstances, and with shamelessly indecent haste, by one of the most contemptible and slavish Parliaments that ever sat within the ancient chapel of St. Stephen.

As Mr. Timbs would say, it is among the things not generally known, that George III. got conceded to him by this act an additional point of prerogative (involving a co-extensive derogation of private liberty) to which no preceding English monarch had ever made any pretensions. It was this. He obtained the law—as it now stands in the statute book—enacting "That no descendant of the body of George II., other than the issue of princesses married into foreign families, shall be capable of contracting marriage without the previous consent of the sovereign, signified under the great seal; and any such marriage without such consent is declared void. But such descendants, if above the age of twenty-five, may, after twelve months' notice given to the Privy Council, contract and solemnize marriage without consent of the Crown, unless both Houses of Parliament shall, before the expiration of the year, expressly declare their disapproval of such intended marriage. The penalties of *præmunire* are visitable upon all persons who shall solemnize, assist, or be present at such marriage."

The Royal message which was the precursor to the introduction of this extraordinary bill is unique and interesting, and may, without any great prejudice to "our Early Closing Movement," be quoted in its very terms. It sets forth,—

"That His Majesty, being desirous, from paternal affection to his own family, and anxious concern for the future welfare of his people [carry these exquisite words carefully in your memory, as they must be looked at again presently] and the honour and dignity of his crown, that the right of approving all marriages in the royal family (which ever has belonged to the kings of this realm as a matter of public concern) may be made effectual, recommends to both Houses to take into their serious consideration whether it

may not be wise and expedient to supply the defects of the law now in being, and by some new provision more effectually to guard the descendants of his late Majesty [meaning, of course, all George the Third's brothers and sisters, and their descendants, direct and collateral] other than the issue of princesses who have married, or may hereafter marry, into foreign families, from marrying without the approbation of His Majesty, his heirs, or successors first had and obtained."

The bill introduced in pursuance of this message was vigorously opposed in the House of Lords, where it was first launched, and it was still more resolutely fought in the House of Commons, the most consummate genius of that day, Edmund Burke, being there the foremost of its uncompromising assailants. All opposition was vain against obsequious majorities of "King's friends," the name given to the legislative tools who had been bought and paid for by the king's money.

During the progress of the measure, the opinions of the judges were taken on the contested point of prerogative, and nine out of twelve of these learned persons plainly said that the king's "care and approbation" of royal marriages extended only to "the children of the king, and the presumptive heir to the crown (other than the issue of foreign families); but to what other branch of the royal family such care and approbation do extend, the judges did not find determined."

Despite this judicial condemnation of the king's pretensions, the bill passed the House of Lords in a very few days, having been introduced late in the month of February, 1772, and read the third time on the 3rd of March.

Its passage through the Commons was equally triumphant;

and thus his most sacred Majesty became not only King of Great Britain and Ireland, and their then pendant nuisance, Hanover, but he also became the legalized tyrant over the natural affections of every other member of his own family, with the trifling exceptions mentioned in the bill.

The merely personal considerations on which George III. moved in this matter were patent enough. Only a few years before, to his great disgust, his brother, the Duke of Gloucester, had married the Countess Dowager of Waldegrave, but the duke had not publicly acknowledged her as his wife, nor had she assumed his title. At court she was neither received as his wife nor regarded as his mistress, but she held in that august region—where the rigour even of female virtue was at times tempered by fashion—a sort of suspended position, like Mahomet's coffin, between these two characters.

This alliance of itself was enough to vex the pride of the king and outrage his German wife's passion for royal quarterings. But soon came another, and still stronger outrage of the same kind. In the latter end of 1771, another brother of the king, the Duke of Cumberland, announced his marriage with Mrs. Horton, whom he at once recognized as Duchess of Cumberland. As an aggravation of the bitterness of this last dose, Mrs. Horton, a daughter of Lord Irwin, was the sister of the Colonel Luttrell who had been assisted by all the court party in ousting Wilkes from his seat for Middlesex. Walpole remarks on this odd conjunction, "Could punishment be more severe than to be thus scourged by their own instrument? And how singular the fate of Wilkes, that new revenge always presented itself to him when he was sunk to the lowest ebb."

The public acknowledgment by the Duke of Cumber-

land of his marriage was followed by a similar avowal by the Duke of Gloucester in favour of his wife, who was, of course, not now disposed to remain any longer, coffinwise, socially suspended as aforesaid, while her sister-in-law of Cumberland trod the earth as a real, live, acknowledged royal duchess.

And now, of course, George the Third's cup of bitterness was full. He made one effort to annul these marriages as illegal under the existing Marriage Act, but failed, inasmuch as his father had ingeniously contrived that that act should not extend to the royal family. The best consolation, therefore, was to devise this new Marriage Act, to the terms of which I have just called your attention.

Never, perhaps, did a law more absurdly fall short of its ostensible purpose. George III. lived to verify in all its bitterness the truth that even powerful kings must fight a losing battle with nature. It was from paternal affection for his family, and anxious concern for the future welfare of his people, forsooth, that his son, the Prince of Wales, should have a goodly succession of English concubines, but not one English wife; that his second son, the Duke of York, should be under the thraldom of a Mrs. Clarke, and that he should disgrace the office of commander-in-chief as never before nor since has it been disgraced, by allowing his clever and commercially-minded mistress to sell commissions in his father's army, which thus became the fruitful exchequer of a shameless and extravagant wanton; it was for "the welfare of the people" that his son, the Duke of Clarence, should be prevented from marrying any daughter of England, and that in the fulness of time he should confer on that country the honour of supporting a family, of whom Mrs. Jordan, the actress, was the mother; it was for the

"honour of the crown" that the Duke of Cumberland, another son, should become the most detested man in England for profligate treacheries which made his very name and title by-words of hatred and contempt; it was "paternal affection for his family," and a regard for the dignity of his crown, that his brothers and sons should not degrade themselves by honest and honourable marriages of affection with the daughters of English noblemen and gentlemen, but that England might enjoy the distinguished honour of supplying his sons with mistresses, whilst their wives should be supplied by a foreign country; a country, too, consisting of a congeries of petty electorates and shabby-genteel principalities—of one of which the not very bad story has been told (I am afraid it is an old one) of a countryman of ours once being stopped for his passport by a soldier at the gate of a German town, and being asked who he was, made answer that he was "An elector of Middlesex," on which the whole guard were at once turned out to present arms to him as to a royal person.

Now, the above-mentioned results of the Royal Marriage act are by no means all, nor even the most important, moral and social consequences of that measure. It has produced in the public mind a sort of settled and contented conviction that there must be one sort of morality for Royal personages, and another sort of morality for their inferiors in rank; and this kind of conviction naturally tends to the conclusion, in too many minds, that all morality whatsoever is merely conventional, and may be outraged at will, according to the rank, or influence, or power, of the offender.

That such feelings as these must inevitably tend to the demoralization of a people, there can be no doubt; and therefore, if there were no more than this to be said against

the Royal Marriage Act, it must be condemned. But when, in addition to such weighty considerations, we find that it necessarily fosters the notion in princes themselves that they are not ordinary flesh and blood; that they are an insulated and sacred "caste," exempt from the judgments visitable upon common men; that the wages of sin to them need not be death, but will probably be a handsome Parliamentary grant, we are presented with matter for very serious thought indeed. Nor are the evils merely of a moral character. Royal marriages, exclusively continental, beget dynastic entanglements which in time become embarrassing to British Governments and British interests, as statesmen have too frequently discovered in these latter days.

Such, then, being the natural and the bitter fruits of the Royal Marriage act, it is not unreasonable to think that, in these reforming times, the supporters of this act, if there be any, are very likely to be soon called upon to show cause why it should not be repealed. When we are giving liberty to all lower men, why are we not to give an honourable liberty to the natural affections of English princes? Why should not they, especially those of them who are never likely to come to the throne—pass gracefully into general society, and thus, by marriage, not only consult their own inclinations, but perhaps make themselves independent of the British taxpayer? Such alliances were common enough in our earlier history, and are certainly not less reasonable now. If it shall be objected that we should be unduly derogating from the dignity of the royal rank, we have two answers.

What was no derogation among our feudal forefathers can be no derogation in this our more liberal age, when wealth and more extended culture are so rapidly softening away the hard edges of exclusiveness. But, secondly, reason

this matter as we may, there is a spirit of progress abroad which will not be scared from any question. Everything old and new is being weighed in utilitarian scales; and even highest rank, in divers places, begins to see that to be respected it must work.

This weak notion of coming down from position—where the coming down involves nothing dishonourable—appals only the maudlin and the feebly sentimental. Almost daily we see noblemen more enlightened than, and with moral purpose in advance of, their fellows, beginning to discover that if they cannot maintain, as of old, all their children, they must put them to some form of honest industry in this hard-working world.

The Duke of Argyll recently placed—as we are told in the newspapers—one of his younger sons in a wine merchant's firm in Edinburgh. What sensible man will think the worse of him, if he only sells a good article, and distinguishes himself in the trade by introducing our best Australian vintages to the home markets? The other day another nobleman, Lord Claud Hamilton, was a successful defendant in our Supreme Court, sued as a late owner of one of the now defunct Panama line of steamers. Let us wish his lordship more success in his next enterprise. Even the Duke of Edinburgh himself, according to the latest information, is a shareholder in a gold-mine in New Zealand. If he be destined to know the delights of dividends, it will add, I am sure, to his pleasant recollections of the southern hemisphere, and if his fate shall be "calls" it will still be that valuable chastening of the spirit—provided the calls be not put on the estimates—which has made so many of us wiser and soberer men.

Here, then, have we a few only of the many indications

significant enough of coming changes in the modes of thought and in the habits of society. Upon the whole, surely—the latest news notwithstanding—human affairs look wholesome enough throughout the world. Everywhere we see the loyalty to mere persons rising into a loyalty to principles and to truth. A noble race seems to be going on almost all over the world between material progress on the one hand and moral progress on the other. What a budget did that last mail bring us! What were the conquests of Alexanders and of Cæsars compared with the peaceful conquests now being made over this globe itself. Suez canals, railroads from Atlantic to Pacific, the rush of the locomotive soon to be heard hundreds of fathoms down in those old Alps which were mightier than armies to a Hannibal and a Napoleon. And the same papers that tell us of these wondrous things have side by side in their columns not less noble conquests over prejudice and ignorance, and greed, and oppression. We see that old and crying injustice, the Irish Established Church, tottering to its fall. We see a House of Commons apparently in earnest, and we see a debilitated House of Lords taking homœopathic doses of life members[3]—two pills a year to keep it on its noble legs—and oh, wonder of wonders, we see Mr. Childers commanding in person the Channel fleet!

True, as a set-off to these amazing facts, we are told that war between perhaps the two greatest powers in the world, Great Britain and America, is possible, if not imminent. Let us hope that wisdom and moderation, a Christian consideration for human life, a regard for their commerce and industry, and a due prescience of the ruinous expense and the enormous future taxation attendant on hundreds of

[3] A proposal at that time much discussed in the English Press.

millions shot away in war, will avert from them and from us this direst of calamities to the advancing civilization of the time. But should wisdom and moderation not prevail, we are yet not without hope and a strong confidence in the future. Let Mr. Sumner talk his tallest—let Louis Napoleon plot his deepest—Childers commands the Channel fleet!

You may read all about it for yourselves in *The Times* of the 20th of May last. "I believe," writes the special historian of this cruise, which seems to have been off the Scilly Islands, "I believe that this cruise is the only instance in which a first lord has commanded a British fleet at sea in person, and also attended Divine Service on Sunday on board his own flagship." We read that the thunders of Pericles's eloquence were only heard, even as their sacred Salaminian galley was only brought out by the Athenians on the most important crises of the state; and in like manner, the Lord High Admiral Childers takes to the sea when war lowers on the western horizon. In sober earnest, let us express our gratification that England has apparently found a very efficient First Lord of the Admiralty in one who received his political and administrative education in this our own Colony of Victoria.

And now, in saying good night, let me apologize by anticipation, if, in the course of handling a somewhat ticklish subject, I have given pain to any one here. We are not all equally endowed with the organ of veneration; and I may not have brought to the treatment of my subject —regarded as a very serious one by many—as much seriousness as it demands. A Roman poet, however, of some authority on these points, tells us that it is pleasant, and not unbecoming, to relax our gravity in the proper place,

and I can most honestly assure you I have only laughed when I could not help it.

But what is of more account to the young men of the Early Closing Movement, I have sought to show, and I hope not entirely without success, how all rank, even the highest, is worthless, if not mischievous, without personal character; that amidst all the degrees and titles into which kings and heralds can split the human race, intellect and integrity must, in the long-run, rule the world; that every individual man has his personal dignity in his own keeping, independent of any dignity any other finite creature like himself can confer upon him, and that, in short, prince and peasant alike, must bow to the inevitable judgment that—

> "Honour and shame from no condition rise,
> Act well your part, there all the honour lies.
> Fortune in men has some small difference made,
> One flaunts in rags, one flutters in brocade,
> The cobbler apron'd, and the parson gown'd,
> The friar hooded, and the monarch crown'd:
> 'What differ more,' you cry, 'than crown and cowl?'
> I'll tell you friend, a wise man and a fool.
> You'll find if once the monarch acts the monk,
> Or, cobbler-like, the parson will be drunk,
> Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow,
> The rest is all but leather and prunello."

PASSAGE OF A LECTURE DELIVERED BY THE AUTHOR IN MELBOURNE, IN THE YEAR 1866.

We so often indulge in the pleasant exercise of praising ourselves, that, by way of corrective, we may do no harm by standing for a moment or two at the confessional. If it be asserted that our colony is "the brightest jewel in the British Crown," that our golden resources are marvellous, that our progress has been wonderfully rapid, and that we are entitled—especially when taken at our own valuation—to a good many notes of admiration from the world in general, I suppose all this must, as usual, be admitted.

But there are other things which, I think, must also be admitted. Our brightest jewel has some very unpleasant spots upon it. Is it pleasant to find Christian miners trying to smoke each other to death in their respective claims?[1] Are "skull-bankers" an agreeable section of our fellow-citizens? Many of you do not know what a skull-banker is. I did not myself know the nature of a skull-banker until it was explained to me some time back by the Hon. W. J. T. Clarke. A skull-banker is a species of the genus loafer—half highwayman, half beggar. He is a haunter

[1] An attempt of this kind had been recently made by one set of under-ground miners against another set in a neighbouring claim.

of stations, and lives on the squatters, amongst whom he makes his circuit, affecting to seek work and determining not to find it. A dozen or so of these skull-bankers were some time back congregated on a run of Mr. Clarke's, and when I, in the Supreme Court, asked a witness (a resident on the station) who those men were, he justified their presence there by saying, "they were Mr. Clarke's friends." But the peculiarity of this friendship was, that whenever Mr. Clarke made his appearance at the station, the whole of these guests used to acknowledge the arrival of their patron and benefactor by taking to flight and hiding themselves in a dry creek.

Again, look at another class of men among us, commonly called "Bolters." The most experienced police magistrate in this city, many months back, called upon me to represent (and to consider the mode of dealing with) the great and constantly growing evil of husbands and fathers leaving their wives and helpless children a burthen on the community at large.

Does not this state of things necessitate the encouragement of reformatories, of industrial schools, of benevolent asylums, and of young ladies hunting modest young gentlemen about at hospital bazaars, on a scale which may be inevitable in an old and population-burthened country, but which surely ought not to be necessary in a young community like ours? Does not this too common disregard of the ties of blood produce much crime and demoralization, the necessary results of broken up families, and of their consequent misery and destitution?

These questions will only admit of one answer, for the facts which prompt the questions are so patent that our very familiarity with them dulls our apprehension of them,

and causes us to overlook the injurious effects on society at large. Independent of these terrible evils, however, I do not consider that he is a colonist whose years are spent in oscillating backwards and forwards between Victoria and New Zealand; between summer diggings in the one colony and winter diggings in the other.

We have many thousands of miners grubbing all the year round for gold. These not being enough, we offer rewards for the discovery of new gold-fields, that we may take security, as well as we can, against the commonly recurring flights of miners to other countries, such as Port Curtis, New Zealand, or Nova Scotia. A farmer may and perhaps generally does more or less love the field he has tilled. Can the miner love his worked-out claim, still less the claim which has disappointed his hopes?

The expression "new rush" goes a great way towards describing this mining section of our people. The calm, patient, and provident household virtues have not here a very congenial home. Gambling is so large an element in the miner's pursuit, that all the social vices and defects incident to gambling naturally become prominent in such a condition. The intense and morbid craving for gold which appears to be generated of constantly alternating success and failure, seems in many men altogether to deaden the moral sense. These are too commonly the men who abandon wives and children to inevitable starvation but for the bounty of society at large. Is it at "Sailor's Gully," or "Murderer's Flat" that we can expect to find the simple, pious, reverent life which may exist in the poorest societies, and of which Burns gives us so exquisite a picture in his "Cotter's Saturday Night"? No. The diggers' and mining speculators' Saturday night will, I am afraid, seldom do for

a companion picture. Come even down to Melbourne, and inspect the mining speculator; there, can you, without fear and trembling, contemplate that special convocation of politic dealers in scrip, who seem to live their active lives near the Chamber of Commerce, and who blockade that part of the pavement, as they discuss the live-long day at high pressure the last telegram from Ballarat, and incessantly give and take the correctest information with high relish, and with an appetite which is never sated?

Have you ever been to the Polytechnic, in Regent-street, London, and seen in that instructive institution the drop of water magnified, I forget how many thousands of times, upon a large illuminated circular plane, by way of giving you accurate and philosophical impressions of what you are in the habit of swallowing every day of your life, without suspecting it? You remember the myriads of monstrous things, almost all stomach, and with any number of eyes, and legs, and tails, and of all imaginable shapes and modes of motion, and which seem to exist only for the great purpose of swallowing each other whole all day long in a distracting no-system of society, in which everybody swallows who has the power and he remains unswallowed who can. If you have ever seen all this, take another glance at the outside of the Chamber of Commerce when next you pass, and see what it reminds you of.

But turning from the moral aspect of this mining pursuit, is it at all clear that the physical benefit ultimately accruing to Victoria from the business itself will afford compensation for the evils I have referred to? I think that the history of other auriferous countries will justify many doubts on this point. Upon reflection, it seems scarcely possible to understand how any mere gold-country

can, for any long period together, be a rich country.[2] "This yellow slave, this ever fresh, young, and delicate wooer, this visible god," is after all only a better sort of guano to the people among whom it is found. Every ounce that is exported leaves the country by so much less for ever, just as if such ounce had never existed, save that it has been exchanged for so much brandy and slops. The digger has lived his troubled and feverish life for the benefit of the Chamber of Commerce, the English merchant, and the English manufacturer. When the gold is gone the digger must go too, or turn to something else if he can find anything else to turn to. For his so-called wealth is simply fugitive, and a gold-country worked out is, unless other interests have sprung up during the operation, worse off than a country which never had gold within its soil.[3]

For gold is neither a manufacture, nor is it an annually recurring product, like the harvest, the wool-clip, or the vintage; and as, therefore, it cannot be denied that, sooner or later, our gold-fields must be like a tale that is told, it is a matter of public concern to offer the utmost facilities for the miner to transfer himself to the farm, the factory, and the workshop. At present he is too frequently a wanderer on the face of the earth.

But the disciples of the "let alone school" may exclaim, as indeed they have often exclaimed, "There is no cure for

[2] Gold can build a city, but gold alone can keep it prosperous only so long as the gold lasts.

[3] This position has been partly realized since. The population of the city of Ballarat has become so reduced by reason of the falling off in the product of gold in the district, that hundreds of houses have been untenanted for years, and many of them are falling into ruin. Ballarat is now dependent, in large measure, on the farming interest in the neighbourhood.

this. Diggers must and will continue to rush about, and they have no disposition, nor can you ever induce them to turn to anything else." This answer cannot be accepted as satisfactory, until it can be shown that we have at any time, since the gold discoveries, afforded the miner any inducements, or even facilities for turning from mining to any other pursuit, or for dividing his energies between mining and farming, or some other business more healthful to mind and body than working in a drive. Among thousands of miners, consisting of an infinite variety of men, many of whom have merely temporarily transferred themselves from other pursuits to this of mining, there must be, as among any other equal number of persons, men of every possible variety of tastes and capability. Have we ever sought to fasten these men to the soil? Have we offered them facilities for becoming freeholders? As the business of gold-digging must at some time or other come to an end, or become so unprofitable and precarious as to be followed only in connexion with some other less uncertain pursuit, are we wise in constantly regarding this industry as a permanent one, when we know that in its very nature it can be only temporary? For years past our produce of gold has been falling off, and therefore should we not at least, especially on free trade principles, remove all impediments in the way of the miner using his present industry as the means of rising into some other calling which might give us a settled citizen in exchange for a very hardworking, and frequently reckless wanderer? What, until very lately, has operated to prevent, not merely miners, but all other classes, from so changing their occupations? I answer, our entire land system has thus steadily operated down to the time of the passing of the new land act now under adminis-

tration, and which even yet is on its trial. Therefore it was that a few moments back I glanced at our extraordinary society, composed among other elements, of 80,000 miners,[4] alongside, as it were, of some 1100 squatters. I have endeavoured, in perfectly good faith, to give a rapid sketch of the too common condition of the digger; let us, with equal good faith, now turn our attention to the squatter. It cannot be denied with truth that for many years our squatters have been a somewhat privileged class. They have had vast tracts of land at an almost nominal rent; some of them have grown very rich and powerful (that is, powerful in that kind of power which riches confer) in the enjoyment of these advantages. I believe that with many of them the beau-ideal of a great country is a country which begins by handing over the bulk of its territory to eleven hundred persons, and ever thereafter respectfully buys its beef and mutton from these elevated eleven hundred. I am disposed to think that we have a number of banks here which devoutly believe this to be a highly satisfactory arrangement. They have substantial reasons for so believing. Much of their business consists of advancing on squatting properties, and in renewing, and renewing or abruptly pulling up, according to the position of the squatter, whose position, in its turn, must depend upon times and seasons as upon his own industry and prudence. There are no droughts in a banker's ledger. There, interest grows all the year round, defiant of scab and foot-rot. The bright consummate dividend of twenty per cent. is in large measure made what it is out of our Australian soil. It solaces the benevolent hearts of many absentee gentlemen, living in ele-

[4] Now reduced in number as mentioned in the text.

gant mansions in the polite neighbourhoods of Kensington and Tiburnia. We are told that all flesh is grass, and if this be so, I am very certain that a large quantity of London flesh at this very moment is Australian grass. In short, the squatter, in many instances, is the mere bailiff of the banker, and the banker is squatter in disguise. For when things go wrong, and when drought-withered station on the one hand, and the ledger on the other, will not balance, and the squatter has his credit stopped, and tremblingly calls for his account, and has it smilingly handed to him, and finds E. O. E.—venerated and cautious capitals—that his account is closed and himself closed with it, then the banker at once appears, and the scene changes. Flocks and stations having gone down the Gargantuan throat of banker, it is of course time for squatter and banker to part. Squatter pays his addresses to Mr. Noel, the Commissioner of Insolvent Estates, banker to Kaye and Butchart. Kaye and Butchart announce that "they have the honour to be instructed, &c.," and so the game goes on with a sort of everlasting fee-fa-fo-fum, banker always smelling the blood of all sorts of Englishmen (without prejudice to other nationalities) who, be they alive, or be they dead, have their pastoral bones perennially ground to make the banker's bread.

In the reference I have thus made to the relations between bankers and squatters, let it not be supposed for a moment that I am for encouraging any narrow jealousy of capital, or that I think English money of itself more injurious in this colony than any other money. But I am certainly under a strong impression, as I have said on a former occasion, that this squatter and banker relation involves some of the evils which existed in Ireland before the passing of the Encumbered Estates Act. A largely mortgaged estate has

generally a sort of blight on it. A mortgager cannot improve if he would; a mortgagee will not improve if he can. A mortgager's solicitude about meeting "interest" confines his attention to fat stock, and he has hardly a thought for bipeds; a banker mortgagee thinks only of the account in the ledger.

You therefore see few indications of civilization on an Australian squatting station. What you might see under more favourable circumstances you may find sketched by Sir Philip Sidney in his "Arcadia." "Meadows, enamelled with all sorts of eye-pleasing flowers; thickets, which, being lined with most pleasant shade, were witnessed so too by the cheerful deposition of many well-tuned birds: each pasture stored with sheep feeding with sober security, while the pretty lambs with bleating oratory craved the dams' comfort: here a shepherd's boy piping as though he should never be old, there a young shepherdess knitting, and withal singing, and it seemed that her voice comforted her hands to work, and her hands kept time to her voice's music." Put beside this sheep station of Sir Philip Sydney one of our stations, garnished with "skull-bankers." In place of the shepherd's boy, piping as though he should never be old, most of our shepherds look as if they had never been young. And as for a shepherdess, how much would a bank manager advance upon her? Of what use are shepherdesses in Australia, when you cannot put them into an inventory, and hand them over with the rest of the stock on the establishment; and how could shepherdesses knit and sing here on damper, and beef, and Barrett's twist, and under the almost dog-like domicile of a slab hut? I am unable, therefore, to feel any sort of regret that the present state of things pastoral is likely to pass

away. Equity, free trade, common sense, civilization, the required variety of human pursuits, nay, even religion and morality, demand that that state of things shall cease.

That there has never been free trade in land in this colony the short history of our land system will show. What is that history? As there are many new arrivals among us unacquainted with the facts, they may be given in few words.

Before the year 1831, free grants in New South Wales were made to settlers in consideration of their taking charge of convicts. This practice is commonly referred to as "the assignment system." The grant was proportioned to the number of convicts assigned. In the year 1831, Lord Ripon's regulations for the abolition of free grants and for the sale by auction of all Crown lands, were first promulgated. Until the year 1839 the minimum price was 5*s.* an acre for country lands, and in that year this minimum price was raised from 5*s.* to 12*s.* an acre, but the change did not extend to lands previously advertised at the lower price, of which there was a large quantity at the time of the change.

In the year 1841 the system of sale at a fixed price of 1*l.* an acre was introduced in the district of Port Phillip, now Victoria. In 1842 the system of sale by auction was resumed throughout the colony at a minimum upset price of 12*s.* an acre for country lands, with liberty to select at the upset price portions not bid for. In the year 1843 the minimum price was raised to 1*l.* an acre by the act of the Imperial Parliament, 5th and 6th of Vict., ch. 36, with liberty to select at the upset price country portions put up to auction and not bid for, or on which the deposit had been forfeited. Chronologically, you have thus in a

nutshell the successive periods of the various changes, from the beginning of our first land system down to the year 1843.

It would be beside my present purpose to show by what influence, and with what objects, the present upset price was first determined on. It is sufficient to say that it effectually achieved the following results:—It at once all but annihilated the land fund; it secured to the squatters their runs for next to nothing—as nobody gave, or thought of giving, 1*l.* an acre for bad land in New South Wales, 16,000 miles from England, when at least equally good land could be bought at the Cape of Good Hope for 2*s.* an acre, in Canada for 5*s.* an acre, and for 6*d.* an acre in the territory ceded by the Indians to the United States, shortly before the adoption of the 1*l.* an acre price in Australia. What wonder, then, that in the year 1844 the entire quantity of country lands and town allotments sold in New South Wales, inclusive of Port Phillip, was only 4259 acres, yielding the insignificant sum of 9174*l.* 15*s.* 3*d.*, whilst in 1837, when the population was only 85,000 persons (being less than half of the population in 1844) the amount of town and country lands sold was 368,695 acres, bringing into the Treasury 121,962*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.*

In the year 1847 came out the celebrated Orders in Council, of which you have heard so much, and which proposed (among other curious arrangements exhibiting remarkable ignorance of the circumstances of the colony) to confer on the pastoral tenants of the Crown, fourteen years' leases, renewable until the land should be bought for twenty shillings an acre. The net result of this ridiculous system —the invention of the perverse ingenuity of Earl Grey— was, that the squatters practically, before the gold era, had

freeholds in vast tracts of country constituting their runs. Outsiders never dreamt of giving 1*l.* an acre for unimproved land not worth 5*s.* an acre, and of course squatters themselves were not such fools as to buy that which in effect they were already enjoying for next to nothing. Emigration to Australia all but ceased, agriculture was discouraged, class animosities sprang up at such an outrageous state of things, the squatters strove to obtain the issuing of the leases, the colonists generally opposing, when in the year 1851 gold was discovered in Australia. This great fact, of course, went a long way towards practically settling a question which is perhaps not finally settled yet.[5]

[5] Further legislation on the land question was discussed in the recent session of the Victoria Assembly. It was admitted generally, that even the last act, viz., that of 1869, had not promised bonâ fide settlement to the extent expected by its authors.

VICTORIA, AND ITS RESOURCES.

INTRODUCTION.

ABOUT SYSTEMATIC EMIGRATION.

I THINK it must be a constantly recurring thought to the Statesman, as he passes through the narrow and crowded streets of our large cities, "What is to be done a few years hence with the thousands of squalid children we all see daily in the streets?" How, even at the present time, are we to deal with these locked-out Kentish labourers congregating in London? Increase our commerce and manufactures as we may; alter our land laws upon any principle experimenters may suggest; organize charity or labour as benevolence or policy may devise; when all is done, will it be much better than the Irishman's expedient for lengthening his blanket, by cutting a piece off one end and sewing it on to the other? Decreasing exports; increasing imports of bread-stuffs; incessant disputes between capital and labour; constantly recurring strikes and locks-out; the infinite variety of advertisements in our newspapers showing the curious shifts many even of the higher classes resort to for the purpose of escaping from, or partially transferring their burthens to the backs of others; all these things admonish us that in these little Islands—little in comparison with the rest of the habitable globe—there is a growing social disorganization, consequent on pressure of population to the

square inch of ground; a disorganization which must soon tax to the utmost the sagacity of our statesmen. What has been called the great "Condition of England Question" must have prompt and very practical treatment if an explosion is to be averted. The wisest and safest relief of this pressure is surely through the safety-valve of Emigration.

The Australian Colonies, New Zealand, and South Africa, have room for many millions more of Englishmen than are at present to be found even within these populous islands. How get them from one part of this planet to the other? Poverty prevents many who are willing to go. Ignorance, prejudice, apathy, idleness, operate in different degrees to restrain many more, even in the higher walks of life, from leaving the scenes of their childhood. Thus, those unable, as well as those unwilling to go, drag on a struggling and uneasy life in the mother country with no better prospect than the workhouse at the end of the vista, whilst, in these new lands, industry and sobriety may command a bright future for all classes of emigrants who can bring any useful form of exertion to any human society.

But what are the means at our disposal for effecting the desired emigration? It costs money, and much money. Few, even of those willing to go, can afford to transplant themselves and families entirely at their own cost. Every day may be seen about the offices of the Agents-General for South Australia, New Zealand, New South Wales, and Queensland, operatives applying for assisted passages to these colonies. The cost of such passages, under present arrangements, can only be met by the Governments of the colonies themselves. This seems hardly equitable in a transaction which enures to the advantage alike of the mother country and of her colonies; and hence, some years

back, a movement was set on foot for the purpose of organizing in England a thoroughly Imperial system of emigration. More immediately pressing questions, however, came up, and the from-hand-to-mouth system of administration which more or less controls the action of every ministry pushed the question into the background, until, at length, it appears to have fallen out of sight altogether.

The present time, however, seems to be a propitious one for reviving it. The present Government have so repeatedly professed a special regard for our colonies that it is possible they may be prepared to give due consideration to any practicable proposal which can stand the test of reason. New blood, from which much good is expected, has recently been put into our Admiralty Department, which—as some thought—required new blood, and Mr. W. H. Smith, amidst his other duties, may be able to help the colonies, whilst alleviating the condition of the mother country.

Should the question be asked, "What has the appointment of Mr. W. H. Smith as First Lord of the Admiralty to do with the subject of emigration?" we may answer, that it can have much to do with it, if he and his colleagues choose that it shall be so. Very many practical politicians have asked ere now, "Why should not our costly Fleet be utilized for emigration purposes, if this can be done without prejudice to the public service?" Hitherto the Admiralty has been managed under the advice of venerable and respectable admirals who have stuck to the routine in which they were born and bred, and it is no disparagement to them that inveterate habit, and mere use and wont, which, in all professions, are such drags on originality, should operate to make them administer the Admiralty as it has always been administered. But Mr. W. H. Smith is not

an admiral, but eminently a man of business; and he would probably secure a great reputation for himself were he to say in the House of Commons, "Why should not some of our ships of war not engaged in killing men carry them alive to Australia, New Zealand, and the Cape?"

"Absurd!" the genius of Red Tape would perhaps exclaim. Why absurd? Most of those which are in commission are cruising about on distant stations, doing their nothing-in-particular at as great cost as if they were carrying emigrants. From port to port they wander; their officers, when on shore, doing a ball or two in Sydney, or a few dinner-parties in Melbourne, or picnics in Adelaide. Without detriment to such little social services, might they not carry our poorer fellow-countrymen and country-women of every class to the same ports? The thing might be even made to pay. It might be made to swell somewhat even a Chancellor of Exchequer's ways and means. If the Empire contributed the carrying part of the arrangements, why should not the carried, assisted by the colonies, defray the cost of their keep during the passage? An extension of the arrangements already in existence for the ship's company might be easily made and reasonably charged for, such charge being at a rate which would allow a moderate profit to go towards the reduction of the cost of the ship's services. Somewhat similar arrangements even at the present time must be made whenever a Government transport carries soldiers and their wives and families to a distant station. And if they can carry soldiers who are paid for, why not carry civilians who would pay?

If it should be objected that the innovation proposed would tend to be subversive of the discipline necessary on board of a man-of-war, we may fairly ask, "Why more

subversive here than is the same kind of service in carrying soldiers' families; or than as it proves to be in the mercantile marine?" Are we to say that the sailors who man our frigates are less amenable to discipline than those who sail in our merchantmen? Such a suggestion would be an insult to the former; and as to the latter, not an instance can we call to mind of British sailors ever having given any trouble to their officers in connexion with emigrant cargoes. Should it be said that it would be *infra dig.* for her Majesty's ships to carry her Majesty's subjects from one part of her Empire to another, Mr. Smith would perhaps be able to satisfy the House of Commons that our Fleet cannot suffer in dignity in becoming more useful to the people who pay for it. The subject will perhaps come up for treatment before we are much older, and is well deserving of consideration as part of an Imperial System of Emigration.

And now, what do statesmen say, as to the shape this imperial emigration should take? A most interesting conference on this subject took place at the Westminster Palace Hotel, on July 19th, 20th, and 21st, of the year 1871, the Duke of Manchester in the chair. Various noblemen and gentlemen addressed themselves to different phases of our colonial policy. After the reading of an interesting paper by Mr. Edward Clarke, on emigration, a discussion ensued, in the course of which Mr. McCullagh Torrens, M.P., made some practical suggestions, well worthy of our attention. As a metropolitan member of the House of Commons, he has had, of course, many and peculiar opportunities of becoming acquainted with the habits and modes of thinking of the working classes.

Having previously deprecated the insidious proposal once suggested for shovelling into the colonies without discri-

mination, all the paupers that could be cleared out of the various unions, he proceeded to discuss the more reasonable suggestions which had been made on this (as he admitted in common with so many others), most important question. He hit the nail on the head, when he urged that our object should be to assist men to emigrate before they became paupers, and not defer such assistance until for all the best purposes of emigration, assistance would be too late. There are many thousands of our struggling fellow-creatures, even among the gentler ranks of life, who, in common with many others, suffer in silence, and with a patient endurance which would be deemed heroical if it could be seen of men; and these, therefore, should be regarded by us all as especially demanding our sympathy and help.

"When we made application for state aid," said Mr. Torrens, "we did not say, send out any man, the idle, or the infirm; but send healthy, honest labourers, and industrious families. Send out those who would draw their brothers, nephews, and cousins after them. These, hearing of their relations doing well, would follow." In another passage, he says, "Coxcomb theorists" (why theorists must needs be coxcombs is not apparent) "and doctrinaires, may lisp out the futile and ignorant objection, that the surplus hands whom we would help to go out would not be able to find the wherewithal to pay their contribution of a third. My Lord Duke, the impostor-politicians who talk thus know little of the people. We who have been working in this cause for now a considerable time, can attest from practical experience how different is the honourable and generous reality from the heartless conjecture which I have named only to denounce it. In the course of last year we found everywhere a marvellous power of self-help, lingering

among those classes of the community which had not yet been forced to qualify for pauper relief by breaking up their homes and severing all family ties. To win a ticket in an emigration club a man will resort to expedients which *dilettante* legislation and economical philosophy, falsely so called, can never divine or imagine. And in this, as in so many other ways, nothing is more true than the oft-repeated saying, "It is the poor who help the poor." Beside the aid of friends and neighbours, a variety of clubs and societies are ready to assist young married couples, with their children, to hive off to fresher and to fairer fields. There is a wise generosity, and a true foresight amongst large classes of the people in this and other matters, which only wants recognition and development, to become a great element of imperial policy."

Since the above words were uttered many thousands have emigrated; and now many thousands more are prepared to follow. Even Tasmania, availing herself of the prevailing distress, is offering, "through the Board of Immigration in Tasmania, bounty tickets," for the introduction of emigrants from the United Kingdom on the following terms: —For a family ticket, including a man and his wife, with all their children under twelve years of age, at the time of embarkation, 15*l.*—For a ticket for a single female, 5*l.*—for a single male, 10*l.*—The holders of these tickets are conveyed free of expense to Hobart Town or Launceston, as may be desired by the emigrants, Hobart Town being the capital of the colony, on the southern side of the Island, and Launceston on the northern side, just opposite to Victoria. If any emigrant shall pay, after the above rate, his own passage-money out, he is to receive a land-order to the value of 18*l.* for each member of the family above

fifteen years of age, and to 9*l.* for each member above twelve months, and under fifteen years old:—and these land-orders will be received by the Government as payment for any crown lands, that the emigrant may buy after his arrival. The Act also permits any person who has paid his own and family's passage-money as cabin or intermediate passenger, to demand within a year after his arrival a land-certificate entitling him to select thirty acres of land for himself, twenty for his wife—if he has one—and ten for each child: for these lands a grant from the crown will issue after five years' residence—including of course in that word the beneficial enjoyment of the land in the meanwhile. The order will not be forfeited by the death of the emigrant, or his absence, if his family remain in the colony."

This last condition, of course, almost explains itself, and cannot, I submit, be regarded as an unreasonable one. No colony can be expected to be at the cost of importing emigrants who may, a day after their arrival, be off to another land, and so, in effect, defraud the community at whose expense they have been brought out.

The imposition of this kind of condition has, however, been questioned by no less a person than Mr. Gladstone. I find, on referring to the authorized report of the Conference I have already referred to, that Mr. Gladstone is quoted as having used, at the end of a speech on this subject, the following words:—"I own it seems to me to be a most questionable exercise of power, ay, an exercise of power which it is impossible to defend, to say, 'We recognize your destitution, and our obligation to relieve it, but we insist upon your going to the British colonies.'" Now, although I have a very sincere respect and admiration for

Mr. Gladstone, I confess my inability to see this matter as he does. Estates upon a condition are as old as English law. You are not obliged to give your property, nor is any one obliged to accept it, if it be offered to him; but if he do accept it, I cannot see what right he has to object to the condition. The reason why English promoters of emigration prescribe British colonies as the destination of British emigrants is obviously because those who defray the cost of this emigration prefer that the emigrant shall remain their fellow-citizen rather than become an alien, which he would do if he put himself under a foreign sovereignty, even though that sovereignty were the United States. Mr. Gladstone says, "We recognize the destitution and the obligation to relieve it;" but even accepting this phrase, questionably large as it is, what construction is it to receive, and which of the two parties to the contract is to put a construction on it? the destitute person, or the person or persons relieving him? If the former, I am afraid it would lead, in some cases, to very inconvenient consequences to society. The ratepayers of Chelsea recognize the destitution in their midst, and the law imposes on them, whether they like it or not, the obligation of relieving all their poor who come upon the parish. The relieving authorities sometimes require the recipient of the public bounty to go into the workhouse, and sometimes such condition is dispensed with. But I am afraid that if these same authorities were to say, "We recognize your destitution and our obligation to relieve it," but we leave to you to make your own arrangements as to where you will reside, some of those who come on the parish might elect to go to the Grosvenor or Westminster Palace Hotel. With all respect, then, so far from its appearing to me to be a questionable

exercise of power (or an exercise of power at all, whilst it is open to an intending emigrant to say, "I will not accept your condition") for the British Government, or any Colonial Government, to dictate the condition objected to, it is not only reasonable but most necessary, unless we are supposed to be actuated by an enthusiastic desire to increase the strength of other countries at the expense of our own.

Mr. McCullagh Torrens's plan is this—which the reader may not think an unreasonable one,—"Let the emigrant," he says, "pay down in cash one-third of the passage-money for himself and for each member of his family, the colony paying another third, and the Imperial treasury the remainder."[1] "Next year," he says, "Victoria might refuse to contribute anything." "Well, let her refuse," he goes on to say, "she has a perfect right to do so; and whether she be right or wrong, it is not for us to say. But we believe that New Zealand, Natal, and Upper Canada would be perfectly willing to contribute according to their wants and their means, if we would do likewise." Sir Charles Nicholson, following Mr. Torrens, pointed out that the colonies of Australia alone had contributed some six millions sterling for emigration, and had given other evidence of their willingness to aid in a general scheme, but that the Government of this country opposed the work." Thus the subject is in abeyance, British Governments apparently indolently allowing our poorer fellow-citizens to drift into destitution rather than do that which even the old Greeks understood better than we; for they knew how to found colonies, if they did not know how to keep them. "An ancient Greek

[1] Might not Queen's ships furnish this third without further cost to the State?

colony," says Archbishop Whateley, "was like what gardeners call a layer; a portion of the parent tree, with stem, twigs, and leaves imbedded in fresh soil till it had taken root, and then severed. A modern colony is like handfuls of twigs and leaves pulled off at random and thrown into the earth to take their chance." This is our mode of carrying out what Bacon calls "these ancient, primitive, and heroical works."

Even the old Romans must have had methods of colonization superior to ours. Gibbon, citing Pliny, observes "that twenty-five Roman colonies were settled in Spain; and nine in Britain, of which London, Colchester, Lincoln, Chester, Gloucester, and Bath still remain considerable cities." And the spirited and sensible speech of Claudius (A.D. 48), as reported by Tacitus, shows in how large and liberal a spirit Rome colonized in connexion with her successive conquests. The free paraphrase of Murphy is worth quoting.[2]

"The Alps, in the course of time, were made the boundaries of the city; and by that extension of our privileges not simple individuals, but whole nations were

[2] "Postremo ipsam ad Alpes promotam, ut non modo singuli viritim, sed terræ, gentes, in nomen nostrum coalescerent. Tunc solida domi quies, et adversus externa floruimus, cum Transpadani in civitatem recepti, cum, specie deductarum per orbem terræ legionum, additis provincialium validissimis, fesso Imperio subventum est. Num pœnitet, Balbos ex Hispania, nec minus insignes viros e Gallia Narbonensi transivisse? Manent posteri eorum nec amore in hanc patriam nobis concedunt. Quid aliud exitio Lacedæmoniis et Atheniensibus fuit, quamquam armis pollerent, nisi, quod victos pro alienigenis arcebant? At conditor noster Romulus tantum sapientia valuit, ut plerosque populos eodem die hostes, dein cives habuerit. . . . . Omnia, P. C., quæ nunc vetustissima creduntur, nova fuere."

naturalized at once and blended with the Roman name. In a period of profound peace the people beyond the Po were admitted to their freedom. Under colour of planting colonies, we spread our legions over the face of the globe; and by drawing into our civil union the flower of the several provinces, we recruited the strength of the mother country. The Balbi came from Spain, and others of equal eminence from the Narbon Gaul: of that accession to our numbers have we reason to repent? The descendants of those illustrious families are still in being; and can Rome boast of better citizens? Where do we see more generous ardour to promote her interest?

"The Spartans and the Athenians, without all question, acquired great renown in arms: to what shall we attribute their decline and total ruin? To what but the injudicious policy of considering the vanquished as aliens to their country? The conduct of Romulus, the founder of Rome, was the very reverse: with wisdom equal to his valour, he made those fellow-citizens at night who, in the morning, were his enemies in the field. . . . . The institutions of our ancestors, which we so justly revere at present, were at one time a novelty in the constitution."

There can be little doubt that the detachments of Roman citizens which—whether legionaries or others—were transplanted to Britain, Gaul, or Spain, were so despatched at the cost of the State. English colonies do not ask so much of *their* mother country. All that is suggested is, that, as colonization enures to the benefit both of parent and child, each should contribute to the cost, and, if this position be admitted, England cannot contribute more conveniently, or at less cost to the State, than by allowing some of her ships already "in commission" to carry portions of our population

to those distant lands in which they will be strength instead of weakness to the Power which sends them forth.

The Duke of Wellington once said that England "could not afford little wars." The trumpery Abyssinian war cost England some nine millions of money. An Afghan war may cost us ninety or a hundred millions or more, to be shot away with mischievous results possibly; with very unprofitable results at the best. One half the cost of this Abyssynian war, had it been expended in sending our redundant population to Australia and New Zealand, would have provided the mother country with hundreds of thousands of new customers, and probably would have gone a long way to mitigate the very serious and trying commercial and industrial crisis under which England is now labouring, and labouring too without even being able as yet to indulge the hope that her affairs are at the worst.

CHAPTER I.

COMPENDIOUSLY HISTORICAL.

As few people study the circumstances of any country until they have special motives for doing so, I would at the outset suggest to any reader to commence his inquiries about the Australian colonies by devoting a few minutes to a close and steady examination of the accompanying map of Australia.

Obtaining thus a clear comprehension of the precise position and extent of each of the five Australian colonies, he will, in every word he reads afterwards, see quite distinctly to what portion of this vast island continent any particular piece of information refers. The knowledge thus obtained becomes, as it were, localized in the mind's eye, and therefore is much more likely to rest in the memory than would be the case were the map to be altogether disregarded.

This map, it will be seen, shows us Victoria as much the smallest, although by far the most populous, of all the Australian colonies. Until the year 1850 it was an outlying district of New South Wales, called Port Phillip; and its earlier progress was grievously retarded by reason of its having been for so many years a mere dependency on the parent colony. It was even a *terra incognita* until the year 1836, when a party under the conduct of Major (after-

wards Sir Thomas) Mitchell, fitted out at the expense of the New South Wales Government, first explored not merely the great stretch of fine country lying on either side of the course of the Murrimbidgee, but also the territory (now Victoria) lying between the Murray River and Portland Bay, on the southern shore. Delighted with the beauty and richness of the new country, he entitled it "Australia Felix," and in the interesting work in two volumes, which he soon afterwards published, he gave such a glowing account of the scenes he had passed through that at once a considerable immigration to the district set in from the mother country, as well as from the neighbouring colonies. The land became rapidly taken up for pastoral occupation; an urban population settled on the site now known as Melbourne; an extraordinary demand for sheep and cattle to stock the new pastures arose, and as much new capital came from England for these investments, a great impulse was thus given, even to the older settlements of New South Wales and Tasmania. Within a year of Major Mitchell's expedition the new settlement had made such progress that it became necessary to establish in it some sort of government; and therefore, in March, 1837, the then Governor of New South Wales, Sir Richard Bourke, visited the district from Sydney, for the purpose of deciding on a site for a capital. Confirming reports which had been made to him by some of his officials previously employed for the purpose, he selected, and proclaimed the site for the new city. The population increased by the year 1839 to above 6000; upon which the Home Government sent out an officer, Mr. Charles Joseph La Trobe, under the title of Superintendent, to take charge of the district under the New South Wales Government. He was accompanied, amongst other

officials, by Mr. James Croke as a law officer of some kind, the judicial arrangements to start with being of a very simple and primitive character.

These two officers continued in the same service, the one as Lieutenant-Governor—to which office he was afterwards promoted—the other as Solicitor-General, for many years, and until some time after the gold discoveries in the year 1851. I knew both very well towards the end of their careers, and was much amused by hearing them once reminding each other, at the dinner-table, of the time when, on receiving their appointments, they accidentally met for the first time at the Colonial Office in Downing Street, having gone there to ascertain in what precise part of the Antipodes their respective duties lay. They were rather disconcerted at not being able to learn anything definite from any one in the office. At length the principal geographical authority came forward, and sweeping his right hand over a portion of a map representing some two thousand three or four hundred miles in extent, he said, "Well, it's somewhere about *there*, but you'll soon find it when you get out;" with which assurance the newly appointed trustfully took their leave, the whole southern coast of New Holland before them where to choose, and Providence their guide.[1]

The new settlement being, as it was, 600 miles by sea from the capital of the old one, and no communication between the two by land being possible except to explorers, soon began to experience the unpleasant effects of its close

[1] An excellent and accurate account of the discovery and early history of Victoria, down to the commencement of responsible government in the colony, from the pen of Mr. Francis Labillière, has lately been published by Sampson Low, Marston, and Co.

relationship with New South Wales. The then existing Legislature of the colony, consisting of the Governor and and a few officials appointed under instructions from home, had budgets to prepare and ways and means to consider, as well as larger governments. In those days the colonies were extremely convenient patronage preserves for English ministers; and many a damaged reputation found comfortable refuge in them, in various offices of trust. Ministers working Parliamentary majorities were too much pressed in weathering home difficulties, to be able to spare much time for the consideration of what was best for the interests of people 14,000 miles off, and who were almost as much removed from public opinion in England, as if they were inhabitants of another planet. Local government then, in these settlements, became at once costly and bad; but a new taxable district was not unacceptable to the colonial seat of government. Port Philip settlers soon yielded a very handsome contribution to the Sydney state coffers; but the lion's share of this contribution was expended, not where it was raised, but in "the middle (i. e. the Sydney) district," as New South Wales proper was then called.

Agitation soon arose in the wronged district; and an unanimous cry for "Home Rule" arose. Public meetings were held; resolutions were passed, and Home Government after Home Government was memorialized. Nothing less than absolute political separation from New South Wales was demanded. New South Wales, of course, resisted, and could not be made to understand why Port Philip should be so impatient with a state of things so satisfactory to New South Wales. At length the agitation prevailed, Port Philip obtained separation in 1851, and was

erected into an independent colony, under its present name of Victoria.

Henceforward the whole of its own revenue was spent within its own territory. The making of roads and bridges was pushed forward vigorously, population and capital continued to pour in, and prosperity seemed to prevail throughout the land. A mania for land speculation sprung up; cattle and sheep changed hands in successive transactions, and at constantly increasing prices, on long credits; bills of exchange and promissory notes were given and taken in every direction, and every one pledged his credit to the utmost in the haste to be rich. A bad season or two, and a fall in the price of wool, soon brought things to a crisis. Almost everybody being in debt, scarcely anybody could pay; and what was called a great commercial crisis set in. So many eminent and enterprising citizens passed through the Insolvent Courts of Sydney and Melbourne, between the years 1841 and 1846, that they went by the title of "the Noble Army of Martyrs."

As, however, a young country like this can bear a great deal of ruining, it bore up well against adversity, and it continued steadily to increase in wealth and population until the year 1851, when the discovery of gold marked a new era in its history, if it did not quite do what one of its leading men of the time, the late Mr. Wentworth, somewhat magniloquently said it had done, viz., "precipitated Australia from a colony into a nation."

With the discovery of gold, nevertheless, came so sudden and so great a change that at the time it seemed almost to justify such extremely tall talk. In the year 1851 the population was only 77,345; and by the 26th of April, 1854, it had increased to 236,798. In 1857, it was 410,766;

in 1861, 540,322; and in 1871, it had attained to 731,528. At the present time the population cannot be very much short of a million. The information commonly sought from me is, how and under what conditions this population lives, and what may be fairly counted upon as the prospects of the inquirers should they resolve to emigrate to the new country.

I do not know that I can more conveniently in some measure supply such information than by reprinting here the substance of a letter which I furnished to the leading journal more than eight years back. It appeared in the *Times* of the 24th of April, 1869—together with a leader which will be found in the Appendix. With the difference that the colony has made great advances in various ways since 1869, the information as to its social condition then, may be accepted as far as it goes, as perfectly accurate now. Whatever variations are introduced in the transcription of my letter are only such as are necessary for the purpose of securing accuracy of statement as to the condition of the colony at the present time.

CHAPTER II.

MELBOURNE CITY.

Letter to the "Times."

By many good people in England emigration is regarded as "a leap in the dark." They have frequently as vague notions of our social state as of our geography. "What is our new country like? What society will be found there? Do they live in houses, in tents, or in hollow trees? Are there any roads, churches, chapels, theatres, mechanics' institutes, schools? Is there any risk of the black fellows murdering you in your bed? Above all things, is there plenty to eat? How shall I live if I don't get work immediately on my landing?" These, and many other such questions have I known to be put to returned colonists, by those in England, who, ignorant of all things Australian, have desired, yet feared, to try their fortunes in an English colony. Poor, and even miserable as may be the circumstances of thousands, not merely of the operative, but even of some of the classes socially superior to the operative classes at home, a natural and instinctive caution makes vast numbers rather "bear those ills they have, than (as they think) fly to others that they know not of." Hence, from this feeling alone, many very sensible people will talk for years about emigrating, who, nevertheless, as they get older

and less energetic, finally abandon the idea altogether. I conceive that he who can in any degree allay this kind of anxiety, may do good service both to our colony, and to the mother country; and as I observe that an extensively organized emigration movement is in course of being carried out in England, I propose to shortly sketch the position, and, as nearly as I can, the prospects of the immigrant immediately on his arrival on these shores.

In the first place he does not find himself on some desert strand, dependent on his own individual resources alone for food and shelter. We have here in Melbourne an "Emigrant's Home," a Government establishment, in which new arrivals without means are provided for until they can obtain employment. Of course, they are not allowed to remain there after refusing any eligible offer of service at reasonable wages. The Home is situated at South Yarra, a healthy suburb of this city, and is daily resorted to by employers of labour; and no person, male or female, of any age to be useful, need be, or ever is, many days in "the Home," without being able to procure an engagement either in town or country. I have known several hundreds of newly arrived immigrants engaged from this place in a few hours.

When the new arrival puts forth from this temporary haven, should his circumstances drive him to it at all, "to take a look over the town," he is surprised that he has to find so small a change from home. Streets, houses, shops, all seem to him to be English, and so they are, for the Englishman carries his customs and fashions with him to every part of the world. Our streets are paved, macadamized, and gas-lighted as in England; English-looking drays, waggons, carriages, and hansoms pour along as in

Piccadilly or Cheapside. Here and there in the ruck may be seen an American or a German waggon (the team of the former driven by a man seated aloft on a spring-box as comfortable as an English coachman), which distinctly indicates the nationality of the owner. The English-looking streams of wayfarers, variegated by a few Chinamen and other foreigners, seem to be a mere repetition of the town populations of home. The policeman takes the number of the cabman who drives too fast; the ladies resort to our plate-glass-fronted Colonial Howell and James's, or Hunt and Roskell's, at from four to five o'clock p.m., in carriages for the most part built in London or Southampton; the horn-bands, and other street musicians attract their little crowds; eager-looking merchants and their clerks pour into and out of banks, which are more like Pall-Mall club-houses than anything else; the humble proprietors of fruit-stalls at the corners of streets tempt you with the finest grapes at three-pence a pound, and with the juiciest Queensland pine-apples "four a shilling;" each and all of these people, together with many more representative characters whom it would be tedious to enumerate, remind the newly-arrived immigrant of scenes he has left behind him. If he be of "horsy tastes," or if his talk be of bullocks, his yearnings may be gratified in every particular in Bourke Street West. Here will he find Tattersall's and Smithfield mixed together in curiously blended proportions. The neighbourhood seems to be a closely packed settlement of horse and cattle salesmen, saddlers, and harness-makers, and hotel-keepers and eating-houses; and stock-dealers and squatters, and farmers, and racing-men, and grooms, betting men and trainers, who cross your path at every turn. Here the horse auctioneer plies his calling from the rostrum, as all sorts of animals,

from a racer to a Rozinante, are galloped up and down the yards for the inspection of the company. Here horse-breaking is done daily in the public streets; here you may sometimes have to plunge into a door-way to avoid some maddened bullock that clears the way before him, like a performer from Smithfield of the olden time. Here, also, the new arrival is informed by divers large-lettered placards in eating-house windows, that he may have a plate of hot meat of any kind, roast or boiled, together with bread or vegetables *ad libitum*, for sixpence. The wide doors of these rough and ready restaurants are open, and dozens of red-faced agriculturists may be seen at "feeding time," intent over their plates, and causing piles of food to disappear with a celerity which sets the reflective beholder speculating as to what can be the chances against insolvency of that rash proprietor who undertakes the abatement of such appetites at sixpence each. As the day wears on, and evening approaches, this scene (together with every other business neighbourhood, save that of the theatres and concert-rooms) becomes a comparative solitude. The great mass of merchants, clerks, brokers, professional men, civil servants, &c., pour out between five and six by rail, car, and omnibus—the wealthier portion frequently in their own drags or on horseback,—to their pleasant suburban homes and gardens in St. Kilda, Hawthorn, Kew, Brighton, or South Yarra; and Melbourne streets are, for the night, abandoned mainly to the attendants on the public amusements, the roisterers, and the rats. No one can be long in Melbourne without being impressed by these last-mentioned pleasant creatures, which I have seen gambolling and sporting by moonlight with each other on the pavement in front of the warehouses in Flinders

Street in such prodigious numbers, that their keep alone must be a serious tax on society at large.

The new arrival will do well to detach himself from all these town scenes as soon as he can, unless he is in a position to make Melbourne his home. As he has come to live in Victoria, and not to lounge about the business haunts of other men, however attractive or amusing, the sooner he goes up the country the better. The facilities for getting from Melbourne to every part of this colony, or to the neighbouring colonies of New South Wales, South Australia, Tasmania, or New Zealand, are not only exceptionally good for a new country, but they are little inferior to those of England herself.

In April, 1869, the date at which the first version of this report was communicated by me to the *Times*, the amount of railway accommodation was, notwithstanding its even then great extent, far short of what it is at the present time. Then, there were only two main lines of railway connecting Melbourne with Ballaarat to the Westward, and with the Murray river to the North. By these lines, Geelong, Ballaarat, Kyneton, Castlemaine, Sandhurst, and Echuca could be reached in a few hours; and there was good coaching on excellent cross-roads, even where railways were not. Now, however, in many other parts of the country, horse-power has vanished, as in England, before the rail. By the last official Return of Traffic from the Department of Railways, I find that the number of miles open, is 967. The North-eastern line, the Gipps Land line, and a number of branch lines have brought, in many cases, and are bringing in others, almost every township or district of any importance into easy communication with every other. Many of these towns are the centres respectively of extensive mining and

agricultural districts, any one of which would support in comfort a very large additional population. It is a mistake to conclude, as some writers on this colony have done, that the land of Victoria is generally sterile. Of course, in an island continent, almost as large as Europe, there is,—as in any equal extent of territory in any other part of the world,—every diversity of soil, and considerable variety of climate. But it is certainly not without reason, that Sir Thomas Mitchell, when he first explored this land, named it "Australia Felix." Extensive tracts of country along this overland route are rich and open forest-land, as green and beautiful as an English park; and I have never ridden over them without a feeling of sadness coming upon me at the thought of the many thousands of home toilers without hope, who if transplanted hither, could soon convert the now comparative solitude into a second county of Kent, but magnified indefinitely, and with a far more genial climate. Again, still further to the westward, stretching beyond Hamilton, are scores of miles of rich black soil, which, being for great distances almost treeless, are delivered from the hands of nature ready for the plough.

This magnificent Western district is now in course of being connected by rail with Ballaarat and Melbourne; and branch lines in many other districts are projected by the Government. Thus, the most effective, as well as the cheapest means of inter-communication will be established for the colonists throughout the length and breadth of the land.

I have been the more particular in describing our remarkable facilities for travelling in the interior—facilities which even in respect to the many well macadamized cross-roads have cost us some millions in past years,—because the

home reader will see from this, that, should the labour market at any time be overdone in one part of the colony, there is no difficulty in the labourer getting to any other part at a small cost of time and money; and in no part does he leave civilization behind him, as the settler seems to do who plunges into the back woods of America. In every little town and village and agricultural and mining settlement the newspaper is found, the Mechanics' Institute or the reading-room soon makes its appearance; the sound of the piano and of pleasant female voices falls on the ear of the passer-by everywhere; and we require no other evidence than the large piles of the *Times*, the *Spectator*, the *Saturday Review*, the *Athenæum*, *Illustrated News*, and many other periodicals, weekly, quarterly, and monthly, which on the coming in of the English mail are forwarded to all parts of the interior, to convince us that the dwellers there are as retentive of their English tastes and sympathies as are the people of the city. Upon the whole, therefore, I conceive that there is no new country in the world, which affords, or can ever afford, greater advantages to the working man, or which can present better prospects to the capitalist, than the colony of Victoria, provided always, that the blundering and perverse wilfulness of man do not defeat the bounty of nature.

CHAPTER III.

DEBT—PUBLIC WORKS—GOVERNMENT AND LOCAL EXPENDITURE—POPULATION—WAGES.

THE people of Victoria can dwell with satisfaction on the great fact, that if they have incurred a very substantial public debt, they have something very substantial to show for it. On the 30th of June, 1876, this debt amounted to 13,996,823*l.*, which has been applied to the following purposes:—

Construction of railways .	£12,107,000
Water-works . . .	960,000
Public works and water supply	516,720
Alfred graving-dock . .	300,000
Defences	100,000

The original amount authorized by the Legislature to be borrowed, was 17,948,100*l.*, reduced by debentures and stock unsold by 3,096,279*l.*, and by a further sum of 868,100*l.* repaid. Of the 868,100*l.* repaid, 800,000*l.* was borrowed for the purpose of constructing the Yan Yean Reservoir, and the connected works for the supply of water to Melbourne and the suburbs, and 68,100*l.* to purchase the privileges, rights, and property held by the Melbourne, Mount Alexander, and Murray River Railway Company. The great Yan Yean work has in every way more than satisfied the most sanguine hopes of the Govern-

ment. Originally designed for the purpose of providing the citizens of Melbourne and its neighbourhood with an abundant supply of pure and wholesome water, it has also long since proved most useful for the extinction of fires. For years before the existence of the Yan Yean, fires were very common in Melbourne shops and stores; and the records of the Supreme Court are sufficient to show that these fires were far from being always the result of accident. The great pressure of water from the Yan Yean is such, that on some occasions of the non-accidental fires the flames have been extinguished before they have destroyed long rows of empty cigar-boxes, or formidable-looking piles of dummy goods. The Yan Yean has thus proved the insurance offices' best friend, and yielding as it now does, a very large and constantly increasing annual revenue, it is one of the most valuable of the great public works of the colony, and at the same time entirely unencumbered, as regards the sum expended on its construction. The railways also yield an income very nearly equal to the interest of the money borrowed for their construction. In effect, therefore, the Victorian debt differs essentially from some other national debts, in this—that it represents many valuable and productive properties, and is not a painful reminder of money wasted in destructive wars, or worse than wasted in loans to Turkey and Peru. This must be very comforting to many thousands of people in Great Britain, for it appears from Mr. Hayter's statistics, that "upwards of four-fifths of the interest of the Victorian debt is payable in London, and the remainder in Melbourne. The English creditor, threfore, may be said to be the mortgagee of the colony of Victoria to the extent of some twelve millions of money, secured upon an existing estate in value immensely

exceeding the amount of the incumbrance, and that too, quite independent of the further security on the amount of the public revenue not far short of five millions a year.

As the interest of this, and of other colonial debts, comes in such large proportions to England, the excess of imports over exports, of which we have recently read so much, is also in large measure explained. In the long-run, the interest on a foreign debt, payable in England, must be paid either in money due, or in goods, which having been already paid for by the nation receiving them, no equivalent in English manufactures is called for in return. It is as if the colony were a large outlying farm, sending its rent in gold and other produce to the owner, or mortgagee, on the other side of the world. I have heard some stump-orators declare against absentee bond-holders, but the bulk of the Victorian community are not such fools as to think that after the colony has borrowed the principal in England, the lender must go and live in Victoria to entitle himself to receive the interest. At the same time, it may be observed in passing, that a constantly accruing and increasing liability of this kind involves a corresponding degree of absenteeism, and a drain of colonial revenue not to be wholly disregarded by a provident government.

Since the separation of Victoria from New South Wales (i.e., between the years 1851 and 1875-6), above two millions sterling have been spent on the introduction of immigrants from the United Kingdom. Mr. Hayter gives the precise amount for each year. It is curious to observe that the colony gave by far the larger bulk of this kind of assistance at a time when it was least wanted, viz., from the years 1851 to 1855, during which period thousands of persons attracted by the gold-fields were pouring into the

colony at their own cost. Thus, in 1853, the expenditure for this purpose was 209,924*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.*, and in 1854, 390,351*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.*, and in 1855, 187,354*l.* 12*s.* 7*d.* In the year 1875-6, the expenditure on immigration was only 759*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.*, and as this was not on any recent Parliamentary votes for the purpose, but merely the working of outstanding "warrants for passages," issued years ago, assisted immigration to Victoria may be said to have ceased, being apparently much disapproved of by the bulk of the working classes. I have been more than once heartily hissed at public meetings for admitting that I was in favour of a judicious and properly regulated system of assisted immigration, and I have no doubt at all that some of the most vigorous of the hissers have been themselves assisted by the very means they would now withhold from others.

During the last twenty-six years 31,600,000*l.* has been expended by the Government on public works, viz., railways, roads and bridges, town and country water-supply, and other works and buildings, such as court-houses, post-offices, council-chambers, &c. Many of the numerous up-country reservoirs[1] serve not only for supplying water to the inhabitants, but also for mining purposes and irrigation. The whole of the above-mentioned large sum is exclusive of the expenditure by municipalities, road-boards, &c., for strictly local purposes. These local bodies levy rates within their jurisdictions, are pretty carefully watched by their respective constituencies, and profligate expenditure of any kind, whether it be on undue corporate refreshments, or a too costly deputation to town, to make "proper representations" to Ministers, is certain to be visited with the searching

[1] For the number, situation, and size of the reservoirs, see Appendix.

criticism and indignant condemnation of at least one of the local journals, if there be two in the place.

Definite information respecting the number of the population, the nationalities, the religions, pursuits, characters, habits of life, and general social condition, past and present, is abundantly and very precisely provided for us by our Registrar-General. Specifically ascertained and officially recorded results are set forth in his pages down to the time of the taking the last census in 1871; and since that period a careful estimate has been made of the further increase down to the 31st of December, 1876. By the census of 1871 we see that the population in that year was 731,528, of which 401,050 were males and 330,478 were females. The estimated mean population in 1876 was 830,679, of whom 451,134 were males and 379,545 females. 375,897 of these were born in Victoria; 32,699 in the neighbouring colonies, 194,548 in England and Wales, 64,034 in Scotland, 114,610 in Ireland, 4396 in other British possessions, 20,168 in China, and 24,327 in other foreign countries. 299,091 of these were returned as members of the Church of England, 131,098 as Presbyterians, 109,370 as Wesleyans, 60,910 other Protestants, 198,067 Roman Catholics, 4142 Jews, 20,337 Pagans, and 7664 other sects. For the proportions of the sexes in these sects, as well as for the enumeration and special denominations of a number of subsects, the Table H in the Appendix may be consulted by those who are curious in such particulars.

The occupations and rates of remuneration of different classes of people, whether engaged in skilled or in unskilled labour, are, of course, as various as in England, or in any other part of the world. As a rule, however, all are much better paid than in the mother country; and most of the

necessaries of life are much cheaper. Hence there are few people in this or the neighbouring colonies absolutely destitute, and when they are so it is because they are either unable or unwilling to do any kind of useful work. The following statement of rates of wages was, on the 8th of July, 1878, forwarded to me as Agent-General, authenticated by Mr. J. Chatfield Tyler, the permanent head of the Department of Trade and Customs, and may therefore be safely relied on:—Bricklayers, 10*s.* to 11*s.* a day; carpenters, 10*s.* to 11*s.*; masons, 11*s.* to 12*s.*; painters, glaziers, and paper-hangers, 8*s.* to 10*s.*; general labourers, 6*s.* to 8*s.*; skilled labourers, 12*s.* to 14*s.*; printers, 1*s.* per thousand letters; smiths, boiler-makers, fitters, and turners, 11*s.*, 12*s.*, and 13*s.* a day; bootmakers, machinists, 30*s.* a week; tailors, 1*s.* per hour in best shops; plumbers and gas-fitters, 8*s.* to 11*s.* a day; navvies, 6*s.* to 8*s.*; farm-labourers, married, without rations for family, 70*l.* to 90*l.* a year; same with family, 40*l.* to 50*l.*; farm-labourers, single men, with rations, 20*l.* to 25*l.* a year; ploughmen, with rations, 25*l.* to 30*l.*; men cooks for stations and hotels, 50*l.* to 100*l.* a year; female cooks, 35*l.* to 60*l.* a year; plain cooks and laundresses, 30*l.* to 40*l.*; housemaids, 30*l.* to 36*l.*; nurses, 30*l.* to 35*l.*; nursemaids, 20*l.* to 25*l.*; general servants, 30*l.* to 40*l.*; farm servants, 25*l.* to 30*l.*[2]

The above is merely one of the monthly reports forwarded to the Agent-General by every mail, and very slightly varies from many which have preceded it; and indeed for many years past the fluctuations of the labour-market have never been great, and seldom on the side of the employer. The word "day" in these reports means, for most handicrafts, a day of "eight hours," an "institution" (as it has been

[2] See further about wages in Appendix.

called) religiously enforced in Victoria, and which is annually celebrated by processions of all the trades through the principal streets, with grand banners and flags bearing all the different devices of these numerous brotherhoods of labour. Having witnessed this procession more than once, I am bound to say that I have never seen a better dressed or more respectable body of men than these our annual upholders of the eight hours.

As may be supposed, such rates of wages as those above mentioned,—rates which may be commanded all the year round, not being interrupted by long winters as in Canada and some parts of the United States,—have attracted many foreigners to the colony. Not to mention the thousands of Chinese who throng hither (most of them merely birds of passage), no less than 1051 foreigners were, between the years 1865 and 1875, naturalized in Victoria under our Local Aliens Act. 588 of these were Germans (including Prussians), 35 French, 27 Chinese, 13 Austrians, 11 Hollanders, and the residue small contributions from Spain, Portugal, Italy, &c. That only 27 Chinese should have become naturalized out of the tens of thousands who have arrived in, and departed from, the colony during the ten years, shows that, with few exceptions, they leave their country intending to return, or to be returned alive or dead. Such is their affection for their native soil that they would be uncomfortable if they were to think that their bodies were to be permanently deposited anywhere else. Hence, if death overtakes them in the colony, and they have left money enough behind them to pay for packing them up, and shipping them to China, they are so returned to their birth-place by their surviving friends. Even when want of funds is an obstacle to this operation, these surviving

friends will often, though years should have elapsed, apply to the authorities for leave to exhume a buried Chinaman in order to take him home. When I was attorney-general I was frequently called upon to deal with such applications. Sailors, being a superstitious race, do not like this kind of cargo, so it is very commonly surreptitiously shipped as ordinary merchandise in deference to Jack's prejudices. From a very recent Queensland newspaper we learn that the bones of twenty Chinamen have been shipped at Cook Town for Hong Kong, and labelled, "Specimens of Natural History."

CHAPTER IV.

THE LEADING INTERESTS.

THE pastoral, the mining, the mercantile, and farming interests, may fairly be regarded as the four leading interests, not only of Victoria, but also of the neighbouring colonies and of New Zealand. Farming has of late years made great progress, and even Victorian manufactures,[1] although as yet in their infancy, cut a very respectable figure in Mr. Hayter's pages.

The total area of Victoria, including lakes, lagoons, &c., is estimated at 56,446,720 acres; 33,446,720 acres being suitable for occupation. Of this portion 22,967,639 acres were, at the end of 1875, occupied as squatting runs, which, to a considerable extent, are purchased land.

The land occupied as pastoral is less by 1,262,489 acres than the quantity so occupied in 1874, the difference, perhaps, in large measure being to be accounted for by the number of farmers who, under the Victorian Land Law, have selected land for cultivation. The squatting runs in 1875, Mr. Hayter informs us, numbered 865 (one more than in the year 1874); their average size being 28,044 acres in 1874 and 26,552 acres in 1875. What proportions of these runs respectively are freehold and what under

[1] See Appendix, for full particulars respecting the various manufactures of the colony.

licence is not ascertained, but it appears (notwithstanding frequent statements to the effect that most of the Victorian lands are sold) that 42 per cent. of the entire area of the colony is still public estate in the hands of the Government, and therefore open to the selection of the farmer. The lands under licence are, as a rule, held on very easy terms, and therefore the squatter, being but human, cannot but look with an evil eye on the farmer who casts "selecting" eyes on any portion of his run. Nevertheless, pastoral must and will continue to give way to agricultural holdings, until a point is reached when the land left unappropriated for arable purposes is recognized as only fit for pasturage, as is the case in respect to a considerable portion of the whole. It is certain that settlement has made very great advances during the last few years, for we find that the production of wheat alone has doubled in the period between 1865 and 1875. On the other hand, the squatting runs were forty-three less in number in 1876 than in 1875. At the same time pernicious, though well-meant, land legislation has enabled a class of mere speculative selectors (who never intended to cultivate at all) to victimize the squatter in a manner which no one can defend. They are mere sham farmers, selecting in the midst of a run, evading the Government conditions, and finally fulfilling the original purpose of their selection by selling it to the squatter, who, in self-defence, has been driven to buy the intruder out. Even many who "select" with the *bonâ fide* object of cultivating, fail for want of capital. In a country where all labour is dear, farming can no more command a royal road to success than can any other pursuit.

Mere growing of cereals, indeed, unconnected with the breeding of sheep or cattle, is not, nor is likely, to become a

very profitable pursuit in any part of Australia. Squatting, on the other hand, has, on good runs, in favourable seasons and under good management, very frequently proved so profitable that the term "wool kings," applied to the more successful of these big graziers, is the one by which they are very commonly described in the colony. It is a pursuit, however, which requires either the master's eye or the control and management of an agent at once competent, honest, and zealous; as management and attention alone will frequently make the whole difference between success and failure. What little skill is required in those who live by this pursuit is, however, soon acquired. I have known members of the bar and of other professions who, impatient of the comparatively slow gains of their own pursuits, have turned to squatting without being able at first to distinguish a Merino from a Leicester; but, being men of the resource which education brings with it, they have soon become able to hold their own with the best, and, after a few years, have retired with handsome fortunes. As the sheep are fattening, and the wool is growing, whilst the owner is sleeping, nature works for the sheep farmer as she cannot work for the professional man; and hence I have known, and still know, many squatters whose incomes vary from six or seven thousand to twenty thousand pounds a year; and even a few of the exceptionally fortunate have capped considerably their fifty thousand a year. The gentleman who recently gave 30,000*l.* to the Melbourne University arrived in the colony some five and twenty years back with a moderate amount of capital. His munificent gift, it is very well known, made but a small hole in his income of that year.

But there have been signal failures in squatting, as in

every other human enterprise. Even skill and prudence cannot always fight successfully against a succession of bad seasons, a long drought, and bad markets. Let a squatter once get very deep into the books of his banker or merchant, and his situation will sometimes become, in colonial phrase, "a case." The history and nature of such a case may be seen more at large in a previous page, which shows to what contingencies his career is exposed. Absolute failures, however, are perhaps now rather rare exceptions. Although an unusually long drought in New South Wales has just come to an end, and notwithstanding that some four millions of sheep are said to have been lost—not to speak of loss of increase—yet this does not seem to have much affected the general prosperity.

The mining interest, although still a very important one, has been on the wane for several years past. Any mine, howsoever rich, will in time become worked out; or, as the works get deeper, must become unprofitable from the mere expense of "following the gold." The pursuit, however, is so fascinating to many people that thousands of new hands are always to be attracted to a business which, whilst it generally yields bread at the worst, may at any hour reward the lucky with a substantial fortune. It is very curious to learn from Mr. Hayter's statistics that of 20,120 gold miners (out of a total of 52,411) in 1871, only 353 returned themselves on the census schedules as having been previously connected with any description of mining. The pursuits in which the highest numbers (turned miners) occur, are farmers, farm-labourers, &c., 6011; sailors and others connected with the sea, 3845; general labourers, 1135; carpenters, 795; shopkeepers, 487; commercial clerks or salesmen, 412; butchers, 401; blacksmiths, 392;

all of whom had been tempted, besides, doubtless, thousands of others, from their own proper callings into the precarious business of digging for gold. Nevertheless, the uncertainty and the steadily diminishing chances from day to day of obtaining large prizes, together with heavy customs duties on their tools, have reduced the gross number of gold-miners in Victoria by one-half within the last ten years. In 1865 they numbered 79,457; and continuously decreasing from year to year, we find them, in 1875, reduced in number to 41,717. This reduction, however, has apparently tended to improve the condition of those who remained, for I find that the average value of gold per miner was, for the year 1871, only 93*l.* 6*s.* 0.62*d.*; and for 1875 it was 104*l.* 4*s.* 4.02*d.* Some men work for wages under companies and firms; some on their own account. So far as quartz-crushing goes, that is of course a business for which capital, and sometimes large capital, is indispensable, as tens of thousands of pounds have been frequently expended before the adventurers have struck the reef, or obtained the colour of gold. But when struck, perhaps at a depth of many hundreds of feet from the surface, the outlay has often been returned with ample interest within a few weeks. Hence the exciting character of the pursuit, the demoralizing tendency of which is explained more at large in a previous page. The evil I enlarged on in 1866 is as great now, and is inseparable from the calling. When Australian diggers come to read the news from Bombay of November 12 of this year (see *Times* of the 14th November, 1878), I almost tremble,—for the sake of many of their wives and children,—at the thought of the effect which that news will produce. Gold, it seems, has been "struck," rich in the Madras Presidency. "In an area of twenty-five

miles by thirteen, ninety outcrops of ore reef, with a thickness of from two to four feet, yielding from a few pennyweights to 200 and 800 ounces per ton," have been already discovered. "The richer stone shows, when broken," it is said, "a fine and coarse gold with jagged pieces as large as peas." Sir Andrew Clarke, formerly surveyor-general of Victoria, and now the "Public Works member of the Viceregal Council, is reported as having visited the spot (Wynaed) last February, and having, from his Australian experience, judged the country highly auriferous, he, with the sanction of the Viceroy, has taken steps for the introduction of some practical miners from Australia for the purpose of exploring and testing the quartz reefs."

Should the above statements be even *half* realized, we may safely count on "a new rush" from many parts of Australia to India, especially as the climate is described as healthy and pleasant for Europeans nine months in the year; and we may just as safely count on many a miner's wife and children being left to the guardianship of the Australian communities, as has happened in so many scores of cases before. Desertion may not be intended in many of the cases; but, from all sorts of accidents, allurements, and misadventures, the final results will be much the same as in cases of deliberate desertion. By way of set-off it is to be hoped that the Indian Government will add something substantial to their exchequer by means of this gold discovery, and not sanction the absurd perversion of the royal mines doctrine, which has been attended by such ridiculous consequences in Australia. These consequences I will call the reader's attention to, a little further on.

Returning to our Victorian mines, we find that all gold-mining consists either of alluvial working, or of quartz-

crushing. The gross gains from the former must necessarily (unless new fields shall be discovered) diminish from day to day; and therefore "prospecting," as the search for new reefs is called, has not only grown into a sort of business, but what is more, into a business petted, patronized, and peculiarly subsidized by successive governments. Very recently the sum of 20.000*l.* was put on the estimates, to stimulate and reward prospectors. The encouragement that this kind of expenditure has given to parliamentary jobbing, and extra parliamentary "loafing," has been often stigmatized both in Parliament, and by the Press, and certainly not without reason.

Recent intelligence has arrived from the colony, to the effect that gold-bearing stone has been struck in the Magdala claim at Stawell, at 1988 feet from the surface. This being much deeper than any discovery yet made, has caused great excitement among all the mining fraternity.

From the commencement of the gold discoveries, to the present time, the product of gold from Victorian soil has considerably exceeded two hundred millions of pounds in value. Any correct return, however, is not possible by reason of large quantities having left the colony over-land, or in other ways, so as to be unrecorded at the custom-house.

As may be supposed, gold-diggers, as a class, do not save money, even when they are more than commonly fortunate. Their surplus cash, in the great majority of cases, where not bestowed on the publican, makes itself wings, and flies away in new ventures, or is spent in wild flights of extravagance and folly. I remember in the earlier days, when great prizes were frequently made in a few weeks or hours, Melbourne and Sydney rang with reports of digger excesses and eccentricities, many of

them smacking of utter recklessness as to the future. I once knew a digger client, who in his disputes with his partners or his neighbours—for diggers are fond of the luxury of law,—would insist on his attorney giving his Counsel 100 guineas as a fee on any motion,—and motions were not uncommon with him—which could be disposed of in an hour or two. And although the Counsel caused this munificent client to be informed that such fees for such services were unnecessarily large, he insisted on paying them; so, *no further* effort was made "to check the genial current of his soul," in the indulgence of so rare a form of enthusiasm.

During the government of Mr. La Trobe, that gentleman and one of the Police Magistrates once visited the Forest Creek gold-field. As they strolled along the creek they talked to a few of the diggers, one of whom, being at work in his narrow claim supplemented his information by throwing up at the feet of his questioners, a lump of clay as large as a man's fist and studded throughout with nuggets as large as beans and peas. After examining the specimen,—as Mr. La Trobe informed me—it was handed back to the digger, who refused at first to take it, saying, "Oh, keep it, sir, and take it home to the missus." "Why, my good man," replied the Governor, "you don't seem to be aware that this lump is worth very many pounds, and as to my accepting it, that is quite out of the question." The man still pressed his present, but at last reluctantly resumed possession of it, saying, "Why shouldn't you take it, sir; there's plenty more where this came from." My old friend, Mr. Richard Henry Horne (Orion, as he is called after his epic of that name,) was for some years a Warden and Police Magistrate at Waranga in Victoria.

Writing to me one time from the gold-field then in his charge, he gave me the following particulars, which he intended to publish, but which, so far as I am aware, have not been published. Writing of gold-fields shops of the period of 1852 and 1853, he says, "Few of the shopkeepers would take the trouble to give you change. The piece of money you put down, whatever it was, was considered as the price of what you wanted; and you had either to be content with the quantity you asked for, or take more to make up the amount of the piece, or be insulted, or laughed at, and told to go about your business."

"On entering a shop, you often found a little Jewish youngster, seated on an unopened bale of goods, playing the accordion. In answer to your request, he only grinned in your face, and continued playing without rising from his seat. You were left to walk out again as wise as you entered; you neither got what you asked for, nor any word of information on the subject."

"I mentioned in my book 'Australian Facts and Prospects,' that diggers had sometimes pursued me on my way back to Melbourne, when I was in charge of the Gold Escort, begging me to thrust 200*l.* in notes into my pistol-holsters, and 500*l.* into my riding-boots. But on one occasion a bundle of notes to the amount of 1000*l.* was sent to me laid flat and tied up in a thin piece of brown paper; and as it came in company with some saddlery, the four edges of each note were ground off, so that the bundle of notes presented the appearance of an oval block of dirty paper."

"The diggers' gold-bags were emptied out in the gold-brokers' shops so carelessly that the sweepings of the dirt and dust of the floor of the shop on Saturday night were, in some of the shops, worth 12*l.* every week. On

one occasion, in a certain gold-broker's place, the value of the shop-sweepings for the week amounted to 20*l.*"

"Hired carriages were let out by the hour at from two to three guineas, and sometimes at five guineas an hour. As the carriage continually stopped at a public house, it eventually stuck fast at the last one, either from the occupants being unable to re-enter the carriage or unable to get out of it. So the carriage party in the latter case, driver and all, remained fast asleep—while the hours and guineas *went on.*" "I once," continues Mr. Horne, "witnessed a digger's wedding—a lucky digger of the first class. He had hired four carriages. In the first he sat with a friend, both of them in red diggers' shirts; but the bride and her bridesmaids were dressed as fine as chimney-sweeps on May-day in an English village. Ladies and gentlemen of the same class (the wedding guests) occupied the two next carriages. The fourth carriage contained only one occupant. This was the clown engaged from the theatre, who, after performing various antics, stood up on the seats in his clown's dress and courteously saluted the public on each side of the street as the *cortége* proceeded."

Miners being an excitable and impulsive race, they frequently married in a hurry, as they did most other things in a hurry. Whether it was a rash and inconsiderate rush hundreds of miles away to Port Curtis—afterwards, when destitute, to be brought back at the expense of the State—or contracting an alliance for life, much was left to mere chance. I myself once knew of a digger who, being unable to suit himself on his gold-field, came to the metropolis in search of a wife. Passing through the streets on the morning after his arrival in town, his eye was attracted to a buxom young housemaid who was down on her hands and

knees hearth-stoning and cleaning the steps of her master's house. The particular presentation of the "human form divine" which this operation affords to the eye of a beholder from behind is not one which, whatsoever its attractions in other respects, is favourable to his seeing whether her face is in harmony with her figure. So our digger passed and repassed the "young person" whilst at her labours, examining her much perhaps as he would examine the points of a horse, and endeavouring to get a good look at her face. Satisfied at last, he approached her and opened a conversation as follows:—"Young woman, do you want a husband?" "Get along, you impudent fellow," answered the girl, "how dare you to come to me with your impudent questions?" and she prepared to re-enter the house. "Now don't be angry," rejoined the digger, "I don't mean to be impudent at all. You seem a very nice industrious young woman, and I'm a sober, hard-working man, and I want a wife, and I think I should like you very much, if you think you could fancy me. I don't want you to answer at once, but consult your father and mother, or friends, and they can inquire about me; I'll give you my address, and if they get a satisfactory answer, why then, I dare say, we shall soon bring the matter to bear." As this at any rate looked like business, and the man's manner was serious and respectful, the housemaid, who was a very decent girl, was soon brought to "a parley." The digger was introduced to the girl's parents, his references were satisfactory, his character good, and as he was a good-looking fellow to boot, the parties were married within the week, the girl's mistress consenting to accept short notice of the resignation of the housemaid duties. Months afterwards, the bride called to see her old mistress, declared

that she had got "one of the best of husbands," and that she was as happy as the day was long. The affair certainly turned out better than either party had a right to expect. The recklessness which leads to the hiring of clowns as an appendage to a marriage breakfast, or to the appropriating housemaids at door-steps, are natural incidents of mining life, amongst the uneducated. The moral intoxication caused in some minds by sudden accessions of wealth, too often proved the ruin of those supposed by their fellows to be such enviable favourites of fortune.

I am satisfied that I am correct, in my statement as above, that even the majority of those who succeeded at the gold-fields, were not content with success, but tried for "something more," and failed oftener than they succeeded. Although on every gold-field were many men who in their education and antecedents were gentlemen, and able calmly to understand and review their own imprudence, yet frequently they were no more proof against the lure of further ventures than the uneducated; but, of course, they seldom dissipated their gains in wild and unmeaning extravagance. If they were less lucky, as I believe they generally were, than men more accustomed to the work, they were not the less respected on that account. I have often been struck with the deference and respect with which any sensible gentleman digger was regarded by the ordinary run of gold-seekers. That this is any proof of Mr. Gladstone's position that the people have a passion for inequality, I am not prepared to admit. In the curiously mixed society of "a new rush," all kinds of wrangles, and disputes, and petty litigations are common, and in such case a "tented gentleman" accessible to his less instructed neighbours, as their guide, philosopher, and friend, was often as useful as

an attorney, and of course much cheaper. In this way culture comes in with advantage to all. Some of the most valuable of the Victorian civil servants have, as amateur Judges, in the earlier portions of their colonial career, acquired on the gold-fields habits of mind, which are of more importance to the actual business of life, than much of the cram which precedes a competitive examination.

At the commencement of gold-mining in Victoria, a very substantial monthly charge was made by the Government as the consideration for granting the licence to dig. Under the continuous pressure and agitation of the large mining companies, and of the individual miners, this charge was from time to time reduced, until it came down to what is now paid for what is called "a miner's right," viz. a few shillings a year. At the same time, the formerly imposed export duty of two shillings and sixpence an ounce (a very moderate royalty, and which only fell on those who were successful,) was by successive reductions got rid of, until the miner for the above-mentioned annual payment, not only insists on his right to dig for gold on the waste lands of the Crown, but claims to work on any land throughout the territory. Hence numerous bills have in successive sessions been introduced to Parliament for the purpose of conferring on miners, under certain conditions, the right to mine on private property. These bills have been regularly thrown out by the Legislative Council, not out of any regard for the rights of the Crown, but from the desire—and so far a legitimate desire,—to protect the rights of the private owner. Of course that private owner requires that due security shall be given by the miner to compensate the owner for any damage that may be done to the property; and that this security shall be forthcoming before the miner

enters upon his operations. Unless this security were exacted in advance, the owner of the land would have a very slender chance of recovering any compensation, even were the miner to go right under the owner's house, and bring it about his ears. As no owner in his senses is disposed to depend on the contingency of the miner obtaining gold wherewith to pay the compensation, this vexed question still remains unsettled.[1]

It will be seen at once, that this absurd state of things is only portion of the consequences of the ridiculous application of the doctrine of Royal Mines to a new country like Australia. The miner, in effect, exclaims in the same breath, "The gold everywhere belongs to the Crown, and therefore I, being licensed by the Crown, am entitled to dig for it on and under any man's property." As the miner, however, is not exactly in his own person the Crown, but only a sort of "spoiled child of the State," his conclusion is a *non sequitur* private owners demur to. It being conceded that the gold belongs to the Crown, why does not the Crown sell it, as gold-land, just as it sells any other land, viz. for what it will fetch? At present, there is a practical difficulty in the way of the miner asserting his regal position. That difficulty consists mainly in the fact, that beyond all possibility of question, the private owner of the land has at least the sole right of entry on its surface; and as gold generally can only be conveniently reached *from* the surface, the landlord's consent to the operation becomes necessary, so long as British law is respected in the community. If that consent be withheld, the miner cannot get

[1] Since the above was written, a mining on private property bill has been passed, which will probably disappoint the expectations of its promoters.

at the gold without committing a trespass on private property. Hence, all sorts of compromises take place utterly inconsistent with, and regardless of, the rights of the Crown. As both miner and landowner are, when in pursuit of their own gain, equally indifferent to any interest but their own, the miners will frequently club together, and buy out the owner of the land; and on one remarkable occasion a large paddock supposed to be very auriferous, was sold by a Mr. Winter (a squatter near Ballarat) for 50,000*l.*

This paddock, consisting of some 1100 acres, had been purchased by Mr. Winter,—as I was informed—from the Crown, at the upset price of one pound an acre; so that in this instance he got Crown property at a price little more than a fiftieth part of what it was worth, judged by what he received for it, on a re-sale to the miners. Thus, the doctrine of royal mines, is here reduced to a ridiculous fiction. Neither Crown, nor the Victorian State gets the value of the gold, but it is left to be bargained for between parties, neither of whom have paid for it, either to the Crown, or to the community at large. It would, under all these circumstances, be fairer to the State, and probably, in the long-run more to the advantage of the miner himself, were gold-land sold as gold-land, out and out, for what it will fetch, as are other lands. In the Winter's paddock transaction described above, the purchasers have not only not got back their fifty thousand, but have thrown many more thousands of pounds away after it in mining operations which have never yielded a profit. The only individual who has cause to rejoice over the business is the lucky vendor, who on this occasion with such advantage to himself successfully usurped the dignified part of Royalty.

Treating of the morality of miners, I think it is Mr. Anthony Trollope, who, in his book published some six years back, says, in his account of them, that they are honest, and seldom attempt "to steal" each other's gold. This statement, although it cannot be said to be altogether unfounded, must be taken with considerable limitations. Mr. Trollope was only a traveller through the country, and therefore much of his testimony about the mining character can be only what the lawyers call "hearsay evidence." I have been acquainted with the mining character for upwards of twenty years, and have been engaged as counsel in very many of the mining disputes which have come before the courts. The result of my own observation, then, is this. Miners seem to me to have two consciences: one for "above ground," and another for "under ground." Now, as Mr. Trollope says, I think that attempts to steal gold above ground are rare; and I have even seen on the mantelshelf of a miner's weather-board cottage at Bendigo, lollypop bottles full of nuggets, to the value of hundreds of pounds, which—although other miners were frequently coming in and out—were evidently regarded by the owner as safe as if they were in a bank, and probably were even safer than they might have been in some banks. But had those same miners come across those same nuggets whilst working under ground in an employer's claim, I am afraid that average mining virtue would have been sorely tried. In short, miners no more implicitly trust each other unwatched amongst underground gold, than horse-dealers trust horse-dealers' representations touching the qualities of horse-flesh. It has always appeared to me that a miner scarcely recognizes gold whilst in mother earth as a substance on which a larceny can be committed (although the

colonial law so recognizes it by express enactment); and it only seems to him to acquire additional sacredness as property when it is "reduced into possession" by some one on the surface.

Irrespective of the experiences of many others with which I have been brought in contact, I have had some of my own. Many years back I was, like almost every one else, induced to take "my little share"—as Mr. Thackeray used to say of himself in the railway mania days—in a gold-mine. It had once at any rate—i.e. before I and my partners became the happy owners—been very rich, and tens of thousands of pounds' worth of gold had been obtained from it. As the new purchasers of the property were all Melbourne men, and the mine was upwards of a hundred miles away from the capital, of course all precautions were necessary to prevent any undue stoppage *in transitu* of our gold between the mine and the shareholders' pockets; so a meeting took place to consider the mode of working. An astute Jewish merchant, one of our fellow-proprietors, proposed that the working miners should be required to change their clothes under due supervision, on their coming up after their "shift" (as their eight hours' work is called), but other shareholders, who seemed to entertain more exalted estimates of miners' integrity, poohpoohed our Jew's suggestion, alleging that miners were so accustomed to the sight of gold that they regarded it with as little concern as we do butter or cheese; and that, moreover, they were a proud, sensitive, and independent kind of men, who would never submit to the indignity of personal search, as if they were potential felons. Thereupon a lengthy debate ensued. The Jew was unconvinced, and said, "business was business," &c., and that "this talk about sensitiveness was nonsense,

and not to be regarded." Not at that time having such strong opinions touching mining morality as I subsequently acquired, I said nothing until I was personally called upon for my view of the important question under debate. I said that, from my limited observation of human nature —in which I took miners' nature to be included—the Jew's suggestion did not appear to me to be an unreasonable one, having regard to the nature of the miner's employment; and that I certainly felt some difficulty in accepting the cheese-and-butter theory as safely applicable to the average run of miners working for 2*l.* 10*s.* or 3*l.* a week: that, nevertheless, if it was a fact that miners were so proud and sensitive as to refuse the proposed 'right of search,' there was an end of the discussion if the mine was to be worked at all." The debate terminated by the suggestion being overruled; whereupon the Jew at once sold out quietly at a high premium, as he subsequently informed me, and at the same time he said that, in his opinion, some of the shareholders he had left behind him in their "good thing," as they regarded it, were about as great fools as he had ever met with in his life. I could not altogether differ from him, and as I was still "in," was not sure that his observation did not, to an unpleasant degree, apply to myself. Well, the works went on. The miners' "sensitiveness" was respected, and they went unsearched. I had only two shares of 200*l.* each. Within some four months I got about 90*l.* in dividends; and then the mine suddenly became worked out, and the dividends of course came to an end, and were never resumed in our time. We all thought it curious, and some were suspicious, seeing that, before and down to the time that we became the purchasers, the mine had been so wonderfully rich and produc-

tive. I eventually sold my two shares for 5*l*. . . . . Some twelve months afterwards a working miner was a visitor on business to the office of one of my quondam fellow-shareholders, a leading accountant in Melbourne. In the course of conversation the miner said, "I think, Mr. S——, that you were one of the Melbourne owners of the B—— U——d (the name of our mine) after it was bought from the local men, weren't you?" "Yes," said Mr. S. "Ah!" continued the miner, "it wasn't well managed by you Melbourne men." "Oh, yes it was," said Mr. S.; "we had a very respectable and trustworthy manager, and one who had had much experience on the gold-fields." "Oh, yes," returned the miner, "he was respectable enough, I dare say; but still I don't consider it was what *I* call *well* managed." "Why, what do you know about the matter?" said Mr. S. "Well," responded the miner, "what I mean is this: it wasn't managed exactly as I'd a managed it if it had been *mine*. It's a very nuggety mine, and I was working in it all the time you Melbourne men owned it, and I 'whacked' (that was his very word) 1200*l*. in nuggets whilst I was at work, and I know there were some others that did better than I did." This sensitive creature, Mr. S. informed me, made this statement in the most placid and unembarrassed manner, and apparently not having the least notion that he was confessing to having robbed his employers. Absenteeism in mining will not do at all. Hundreds of companies have been floated; most of them swindles, and now very few outsiders will have anything to do with mining in any way, but leave the proud and sensitive men to practise on each other.

Turning from the mining to the mercantile interest—large and important as it is—I could not, within the rea-

sonable compass I propose for this essay, treat the subject as it deserves to be treated. The colony is described by some persons as possessing different ports—the port of Melbourne, the port of Geelong, the ports of Belfast, Warnambool, Portland, and even Echuca. As to this latter so-called port, it is only a fresh-water affair, situate on the River Murray, the boundary between Victoria and New South Wales. Nevertheless, the imports and exports which pass through it are in quantity second only to those of Melbourne. Numerous steamers bring down wool and other produce hundreds of miles to Echuca for shipment at Melbourne; and imports for the interior are returned by the same route. Moreover, Echuca is necessarily exalted even into a "customs port," because the river being, as I have said, the boundary between the two colonies, a custom-house (God save the mark!) becomes necessary at this township and at a New South Wales township on the other side of the river, to prevent smuggling from either colony to the other. It is exactly the same thing as if the people of this metropolis had a port and custom-house at Battersea to prevent smuggling from Surrey into Middlesex. As to the other minor ports of the colony, they are, of course, principally resorted to by coasters. Geelong, it is true, sends away in the season a few wool-ships; but she is a very melancholy rival of Melbourne, through which city almost the whole of the imports and exports by way of the sea are received and shipped. And yet Melbourne, by nature, is not very superior to Echuca as a port. But being the capital, she, from the commencement, obtained, and has continued to hold, the leading position, notwithstanding that Geelong, excellently and picturesquely situate at the head of Corio Bay (scarcely inferior in beauty to the Bay of

Naples), once fondly indulged the hope that she would cut out the capital, and become the leading port of the colony. The hope was not a wild or unreasonable one, for beyond a doubt Geelong is naturally much better situated for shipping purposes than Melbourne. Commodious jetties at Geelong are run out into the waters of its bay sufficiently deep to accommodate the very largest sea-going ships, whilst Melbourne, entirely destitute of such natural advantages, is some two miles from the bay "as the crow flies," and many miles more if we approach the city along the numerous bends of the river Yarra.

Melbourne, therefore, is, in respect of by far the greater portion of her business, dependent as a port on Sandridge, a thriving borough, and more respectable sort of Wapping, immediately abutting on the bay. The connecting link between Sandridge and the city is the Hobson's Bay Railway; a very valuable work, constructed many years back by a private company, and recently purchased by the Government. Although many of the intercolonial steamers, and a very large portion of the smaller portion of the sailing craft, can now get up the river Yarra—much improved by dredging—to the Melbourne wharf, and there discharge and receive cargo, still the inconveniences of the present limited river space are such that very extensive engineering works are seen to be necessary in order to meet the growing demands for dock accommodation. To provide for this the late Government of Sir James M'Culloch passed an act for the establishment of a Melbourne Harbour Trust, on the model of those at Liverpool and Glasgow. A body of commissioners, consisting of leading merchants and shipowners, have been elected under this act, and they may be regarded as having already done much good work. A bad harbour is not con-

vertible into a good one in a day or in a year; but these commissioners have already done more than all the governments before them have ever achieved. They have had Sir John Coode out to the colony, to survey on the spot the capabilities of the place, and the high fee to be paid to that eminent engineer for his services in improving the port (which he deems capable of being made a very commodious one) will certainly be a most judicious and profitable expenditure. Although, by the establishment of this Trust, the commissioners have had handed over to them the harbour dues (amounting to something like 80,000*l.* a year) as the necessary means of working the Trust, the transfer of the administration of the port from the Government to the Commissioners is yet a politic and beneficial stroke of decentralization, albeit it abridges somewhat the extent of government patronage. A great number of good people in the colony will not value the Harbour Trust the less on this account.

In the year 1874, 1627 vessels, with 699,351 tons of goods, were entered at the port of Melbourne; and 1638, with 703,958 tons, were cleared out. In the same year, 185 vessels, with 26,509 tons of goods (in large measure wool from New South Wales), were entered inward; and 179 vessels, with 25,591 tons of goods, were cleared outwards, i.e. for up and down the river. To Geelong, 64 vessels, with 15,731 tons of goods, were entered in the same year; and 71 vessels, with 25,191 tons, outwards. As to other ports, see Appendix. Nearly three-fifths of the tonnage of vessels engaged in the Victorian trade are colonial, about a third is English, and rather more than a fifteenth is foreign. Of the foreign vessels, 38 of the United States were entered, and 41 cleared; of France, 23 entered and 26

cleared; Germany, 14 entered and 16 cleared; Sweden, 6 entered and 7 cleared; Norway, 6 and 6; Holland, 6 and 5; Denmark, 2 and 2; Hawaii, 1; and Peru, 1. Mr. Hayter shows us that "more than three-fifths of the tonnage coming to Victoria is that of vessels engaged in the intercolonial trade, and about a fifth is that of vessels from the United Kingdom. Vessels in the intercolonial trade represent over five-sevenths, and vessels from the United Kingdom rather more than a ninth of the tonnage outwards."

The following table shows the number and tonnage of vessels from and to the United Kingdom, the Australasian colonies and other British possessions, the United States and other foreign countries, during 1874:—

VESSELS FROM AND TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

Countries from which Entered and for which Cleared.	Vessels Entered.		Vessels Cleared.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
The United Kingdom . .	143	168,795	72	90,174
Australasian Colonies . .	1,722	483,061	1,893	576,206
Other British Possessions .	100	52,066	80	59,648
The United States . .	39	30,744	35	38,285
Other Foreign States . .	96	42,444	42	28,196
Total . . .	2,100	777,110	2,122	792,509

In connexion with this part of the subject a knowledge of the Victorian tariff is of importance to merchants and others, and therefore it will be found set out *in extenso* in the Appendix.

The vast imports and exports to and from Victoria constitute, as many readers know, a very large portion of the

British trade. The extent to which each colonist consumes English goods indicates at once his own producing power and the resources of the country. As the very large quantity of shipping now coming to the colony, and her central situation among the Australian group, make Melbourne the metropolis of Australia, she of course commands a very considerable intercolonial trade with all her neighbours, including New Zealand. This trade has largely and rapidly increased within the last six years. Thus, although in the year 1872 the value of goods exported for drawback amounted only to 461,559*l.*, it went on increasing from year to year until, in the year 1875, the value of such exports had reached the sum of 831,799*l.* Drawback of duties thus properly being allowed on goods not to be consumed in the colony, the objectionable tariff is not nearly as injurious to this trade as otherwise it would necessarily be. The entire imports and exports for the last year (1876), of which we have the complete record, amounted to 29,901,841*l.*; the total imports being 15,705,354*l.* and the exports 14,196,487*l.* The more interesting particulars relating to this vast trade, principally with England, will be found in the tables in the Appendix.

I cannot close this short notice of the Victorian trade without also observing on the spirit with which it is regarded by a very numerous section of those who, by mere numbers, can and do largely influence the policy of legislation in the colony. They find it difficult to comprehend how a man engaged in the mere business of exchange is every jot as useful a person as one who ploughs or makes a pair of shoes. They never seem to reflect that if there were no such workers as merchants, and shopkeepers, and carriers, the ploughmen and shoemakers would, terribly to their own detriment,

have to fetch and carry for themselves, ploughing and shoemaking being at a standstill the while. Nor is this ignorance confined to the mere artisan class. I have heard a member of the Victorian Assembly—as I have stated in this book—demand at a public meeting, amidst the applause of his audience, "What loss would it be to the public were a thousand merchants thrown into Hobson's Bay, compared to the loss said public would suffer were it to lose a thousand working men?" I once also heard a successful candidate for parliamentary honours—an honest fellow, who was a good Scotch stonemason, but with very misty economical opinions—demand, from a Melbourne platform, amidst the cheers of his admirers, "that laws should be passed to prevent the gold from being sent out of the country." He was perfectly serious, and so were his supporters, as one of them said to me with an aside, on this suggestion being stormed out by a pair of vigorous lungs, "You may think, sir, that our candidate, because he's merely a working man, doesn't know much about politics, but I can tell you, I've known him for many years, and he'll teach all the swells a few things yet." After all, I dare say his teaching power in these matters did not fall far short of that of many a Middlesex or Buckinghamshire householder.

Amongst the Australian interests the Professions call for respectful notice. Lawyers and doctors are in abundance at the antipodes. The great prosperity of the Australian colonies may, in large measure, be attributed to the fact that every man in the community is secured in the possession of the fruits of his industry under the protection of English law, well and faithfully administered. In Melbourne, Sydney, Adelaide, Brisbane, or Hobart Town, there has always been a Supreme Court, presided over by judges appointed by

the Crown,[2] some of them of eminent, and all of very respectable ability. Their tenure of office is similar to that of the judges of the superior courts in the mother country; and therefore a judge of the Supreme Court can only be removed from office on an address of the two Houses of Parliament. Consequently the judges are placed beyond the influence or control of any Government; and their effectual discharge of their duties is found to be sufficiently secured by the publicity of their proceedings, and by a Press as free as that of England. There are now four Supreme Court judges in Victoria, all of whom are kept pretty constantly employed, and one of them, the chief justice, Sir William Stawell, is considerably over-worked. Fortunately, to great ability he unites a wonderful capacity for labour, proved by the number of causes he tries and the number of written judgments he delivers.

The Bar of Victoria is now a numerous one. The members are generally from the English Inns of Court or from Dublin; but there are also some able practitioners who have been admitted in the colony under local regulations. As this latter class is increasing rapidly by reason of the advantages afforded by the law classes and professorships at the Melbourne University, the chances of speedy success of strangers from England are now much

[2] I see in a recent report of a debate in the Victorian Assembly, that one member, who speaks with some sort of authority there, advocates election of Judges, as in America. All I can say, is, that having had much longer experience of the Australian colonies than that member, no more disastrous step, or one more ruinous to the best interests of a community, could be taken than to give to that irresponsible abstraction the public, the election of Judges. Ask any honest and intelligent citizen of the United States what he thinks of the working of the system in his own country.

diminished. Every new man, however, in a new country, gets a chance without waiting long—as must frequently be the new man's fate in England—and even a crowded bar will not long keep out eminent ability that can bide its time. "It never troubles the wolf how many the sheep be." At most of the gold-fields there are little local bars, the members of which generally also practise as attornies, frequently receiving high fees from miners.

There have been upwards of 200 counsel admitted to the Victorian bar since the establishment of a Supreme Court in the colony. Of these some are dead, some have retired, some have been raised to the supreme or county court benches, or have received appointments as police magistrates or sheriffs; some have re-emigrated to other colonies; some have taken to practise at the various gold-fields, but the bulk of the metropolitan business has generally been confined to some fourteen or fifteen practitioners. The attornies are much more numerous than the bar, and business is distributed among them much as in England. That is to say, there are attornies who have almost more business than they can attend to, and there are some who are almost driven to cultivate litigation in order to live. As a rule, the profession in the colony, in both branches (their functions are kept distinct as in England), is, I think, quite as respectable, in ability and conduct, as in the mother country.

The medical profession is very numerous in Victoria. In the metropolis they are congregated in great force in the upper part of Collins Street East; and there is no part of the interior, whether town or country, in which there is not a medical man within hail. There are homœopathists and Allopathists, as in every other English community with

which I am acquainted. The two schools of medicine get on pretty well together, the practitioners thereof not insinuating charges of manslaughter against each other more than may be expected from the followers of rival systems. Occasionally, too, there may be a case of Mr. A. declining to meet Mr. B. in consultation, but I do not think professional feuds are common in Victoria.

CHAPTER V.

RELIGION—MINISTERS—MORALS, AND EDUCATION.

VICTORIA is in advance of, or behind, the mother country—as the reader may decide for himself,—in these particulars; that she has no tithes, no established church, no sinecure livings, no pluralists, no thinly disguised simony, no drones who devour the honey, no workers who are despoiled of it. Nevertheless the ministrations of religion are here as well supported, and her offices are as well conducted, as in any other country. They who preach the gospel live of the gospel, from the incumbent of the poorest congregation, up to the bishop of the diocese. Never in any colonial newspaper have I seen letters from poor curates—indeed we have no curates exactly of the English type—complaining that they and their families could not live on their stipend. We have, however, a respectable battalion of clergymen in point of numbers, for there were no less than 669 registered clergy in Victoria in the year 1875. Of these 141, belonged to the Church of England; 146 to the Presbyterians, 95 to the Roman church; 52 to the Independents; and 48 to the Baptists. I think there is hardly a sect, however eccentric or insignificant, that is not represented in Victoria. We do not seem, however, as yet to have any "Shakers," and as Mrs. Garland and her family report themselves as 'uncomfort-

able' here, and seem to have a taste for squatting, there may be more room for them in Australia, than in the preoccupied counties of the mother country.

Colonial bishops work as hard as, if not harder, than many of their clergy. They have usually been selected from home, and the selection, whether Church of England, or Romanist, has rarely been challenged as injudicious. I have had the honour of personally knowing a few of them, and I have always felt that the colonies must even socially be the better for their presence, notwithstanding the wide spread repugnance to the title Bishop. I have had the honour to know a Selwyn, and a Pattison, names affectionately remembered in their respective dioceses, and which have become almost historical in both hemispheres. It is to the credit of the English church that less conspicuous, although not less esteemed colonial prelates, such as Bishop Perry, and Bishop Moorhouse, do not suffer in a comparison with the eminent men first named. No one who has not spent years in these distant lands can appreciate the labours of a colonial bishop, especially in the days before railways. Often in making the circuit of their dioceses, they had to rough it considerably,—rough roads, rough fare, rough conveyances, and occasionally rough company.

In New Zealand, Bishop Selwyn had often to cross rivers and creeks that were at times almost impassable from flood; and once, as I learned when I was in Auckland, he had to figure as a member of "the church militant" by thrashing into compliance a surly Charon of a puntman, who, hating parsons in the gross, without distinction of high or low, broad or narrow, had refused to ferry him over a river. Yet how much was Dr. Selwyn respected

throughout the country, especially among the natives! I have known Maoris who in their dealings with our countrymen would take no advice but the bishop's. "Why so," said I once, to a great friend of the Maoris, "Because," was the answer, "the Maoris all say, the bishop never told them a lie." Here was a greater civilizer than regiments and men of war, although he did not make half so much noise in the world. No one ever did more than the late Bishop Selwyn, to reconcile the Maori to English rule.

I have known another bishop, who, in Australia, has often done his episcopal business on the top of a dray, and has been glad of such accommodation, in cross cuts in the bush. His good and devoted wife sometimes accompanied him, and one evening, as night, in that country of short twilight, was rapidly closing in on them, their dray stuck in a creek, from which a strong team of bullocks failed to drag the load, notwithstanding that they were stimulated thereto by the usual amount of whipping, and the wonderful oaths of the driver. "My good man," said the lady, "how can you use such shocking language? do you imagine for a moment that your bullocks will pull any the better for that?" "My word, I do," returned the driver, "they downt understand anything else, and if I mustn't talk to 'em in my own way, why here we are for the night." The bullocks seemed to confirm this statement, by standing one and all perfectly still. The situation was a serious one, and it really looked to the bishop and his wife, as if there was something in what the man said. Bullocks, although stupid-looking brutes, are yet susceptible of some sort of education, and as the whole of their teaching had been conveyed in countless

damns and curses, gentler language was perhaps to them an unknown tongue. All this having been duly reasoned between the Bishop and his partner, the consultation ended by the latter again appealing to the driver who had addressed himself to his usual solace, his pipe, he being very indifferent about camping out, as being used to it. "Do you really mean, my good man, that your bullocks will not pull unless you talk to them in that dreadful way?" "In course I do; but never mind; to morrow I'll get a span more at the station hard by, and then we'll get out of this." "But can't you get out *without* such assistance?" "No, not unless, I talk to em in my own way." "Well, then," said the sorely perplexed lady, more anxious about her husband's health than her own, "Well, then, just talk to them *a very little* in your own way." Thus authorized, the driver did just talk a little; the bullocks, having had a long rest, recognized the usual persuasive tones, aided by the whip, and with a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull all together, they at last contrived to get out of the creek.

But the hard experiences of colonial Bishops are not confined to long journeys by land. The chronicles of New Zealand have presented us with the following story, communicated to me by an ex-governor of the colony:—

No less than three bishops once, in making their respective circuits through the provinces, and round about the coast of that interesting land, were boxed up together in a small coaster in a heavy gale of wind, and on a lee-shore. The situation was a truly perilous one. One of the bishops asked the captain "whether there was any danger?" "Danger!" answered the rough old salt, "why, if this wind only stands, in another hour or two we shall all be in heaven." "God forbid!" exclaimed another of the

bishops, surprised into an expression which, upon reflection, perhaps he would not have used. Even bishops on a lee-shore, in a heavy gale of wind, cannot be expected to pick their phrases as if they were at a Diocesan conference.

The Rev. James Ballantyne, an experienced Presbyterian minister in Victoria, in his little work, "Homes and Homesteads," justly comments on the laborious nature of many of the clerical charges in the colony, "embracing," as he says they sometimes do, "two, three, or even four congretions separated from each other by five, eight, or ten miles, it may be." "Pastoral visitation," as he says, in these wide districts "implies a life that is anything but a sinecure, and must require higher motives than mere material considerations to induce men to follow it."

I have no doubt that this is true; and I am sorry that such arduous ministrations are not all equally effective on their flocks. In nothing are Mr. Hayter's statistics more interesting than in the table showing the relative number of arrests and convictions among the different religious sects. The Roman Catholics are on a most unenviable eminence in this respect. "In proportion to their numbers in the community," writes Mr. Hayter, "the Roman Catholics supplied more than twice as many arrested persons as the Protestants, and more than three times as many as either the Jews or the Pagans. In view of a similar proportion, fewer Protestants were committed for trial than were members of any of the other sects distinguished." .... The total number of criminals executed from 1865 to 1876 was forty-one. Not one of these was a Victorian born. Two of them only were natives of other Australian colonies: there were nine Englishmen, one Welshman, seventeen Irishmen!! two Scotchmen; and for Belgium, France,

Switzerland, United States, and West Indies, one each; China, four; at sea, one. Twelve of these forty-one were of the Church of England, twenty-one were Roman Catholics, two Presbyterians, three Wesleyans, and three Pagans. Thirty-six were cases of murder, and the residue capital cases of other kinds."

Now, bearing in mind that the proportion of the Catholic population to the Protestant was for many years less than a fourth, the above statement is a very startling one. No census has been taken since 1871, but the estimated number of all the Protestants in the year 1876 was 610,469; and of the Roman Catholics, 198,067. The Roman Catholics thus, even now, number only between a third and a fourth of the population. Yet here have we, during the past ten years—not to speak of lesser punishments—seventeen Irishmen hanged as against nine Englishmen, one Welshman, and two Scotchmen! This remarkable state of things has naturally provoked considerable speculation and discussion in the press of the colony as well as in private society; and conclusions have been arrived at which have much disturbed the equanimity of the priests. Even poor Mr. Hayter himself—that altogether impartial and passionless recorder of facts—has not been spared, as of course the figures have no right to be as they are. But they cannot be helped. Kings may claim to be *super grammaticam*, but even infallible Popes must feel bothered by adverse arithmetic. For many years past the priests have been striving in the colony to get a separate education vote for their own body; but it will scarcely require Mr. Hayter's statistics to make the Victorian community stick without compromise to the excellent—though far too costly—system of secular education now in force, and which cer-

tainly is working for good not only among Protestants, but even among the Catholics themselves.

For it is a very noticeable fact not merely in Victorian, but throughout all Australian society, that the people of all sects show a more or less general determination to think for themselves, more especially on the all-important subject of education. It used to be a common observation that in all questions relating to education or politics, the poorer Irish were led entirely by their priests. Whatever may have been the case in the olden time, this is not uniformly the case now. And there are good reasons for this. The Irish section of the community,—naturally as intelligent as any,—not being on the whole nearly so well educated as are the Scotch and English, feel of course all the disadvantages of the disqualifications thus entailed on them, especially when candidates, as they frequently are, for public employments demanding some knowledge of reading and writing. Priestly influence on one side, and a prospect of worldly advantage on the other, the latter influence will in the long-run be found to prevail. There have been Victorian Governments before now in which Irish influence was very strong; and applications for "billets"—as they are always called—from importunate, but utterly uneducated (though not altogether uninfluential) Irish constituents have at times been so frequent as to be embarrassing to their countrymen, the heads of departments. Such candidates, however, must generally be very hard put to it before they will confess to any disqualification for any office on which they have set their hearts. Thus, one Irishman was ingenious enough, some years back, to obtain the appointment of a letter-carrier in the Post Office, although he was unable to read. And what is more, his

native genius enabled him to hold the position for some time, undetected. His district, a Melbourne suburb, being assigned to him, the letters thereof for delivery were duly handed to him in the usual course. His plan, when he got on his beat, was to stop boys he met with on his round, and get them to read the superscriptions, and take him to the houses to which the letters were respectively addressed. As however he sometimes made the mistake of handing in a wrong letter, and found it rejected, he would then blandly hand the whole lot to the master, or mistress, or servant of the house, as the case might be, with an "Ah now, sure, take your own letter for yourself, for it's there sure enough." This extremely original style of postal delivery, however, naturally came to be talked about in the neighbourhood, and as the peculiarities of their postman led to not unfrequent accidents of Smith's letter being left at Brown's house, or *vice versâ*, the matter was duly reported to the Postmaster-General, an investigation into the educational qualifications of the postman took place, and then for the first time the facts of poor Pat's case were officially discovered. The Postmaster-General himself—whether the one who was entrapped into making the appointment, I cannot say, was my informant in this matter—and having a strong sense of the humorous, he could not avoid laughing heartily as he reported the Irishman's intrepid ingenuity.

For the higher education, Victoria, New South Wales, and South Australia have done much. Each has an University which exacts at least as high a standard in the granting of degrees as either of the English Universities; and it is not too much to say that an ordinary "pass," as sometimes known in England, is not permitted by the examiners in Victoria or Sydney. The Professors have

been selected from those who have specially distinguished themselves in the Home Universities; and having no interest whatsoever in slurring their work, they for their own reputation do their best to justify the home recognition of the colonial degrees as entitled to equal respect with those of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, London, or Dublin. The Victorian University receives 9000*l.* a year from the state; large donations have been made to it by private individuals; affiliated colleges, affording habitations for the students, have been built, and therefore we have practical proof that the means for acquiring an academical education in the colony will be always cheerfully afforded by the colonists themselves.

I must not quit the subject of "education," without noticing the education which goes on *outside* Universities and Schools. Mr. George Robertson, the Melbourne Publisher and Bookseller, in the year 1873 imported no less than 7000 packages of new publications and stationery, weighing in the aggregate 1800 tons. These importations were from Europe and America. "With the latter country,"—I quote from the *Argus*, which writes with authority,—"a very considerable trade in books and pictures is now carried on." "Other booksellers, Mr. Mullen, Mr. Mackay, Mr. Maxwell, and Mr. Bailliere, import directly most of their own supplies of special literature. It may with safety be assumed that amongst no English-speaking community of equal numbers in any part of the world is there nearly so large a consumption of new literature as there is amongst our own." It is satisfactory to find "that no proportion of it is of a morally objectionable character," and that, too, although "there is an almost unlimited demand for cheap fiction amongst the working classes, just as there is a like

demand for costlier fiction amongst the wealthier sections of society." Works on history, religion, science, and every kind of higher literature, have at least as large a sale, in proportion to population, as in the mother country. It may surprise the reader to learn that the whole export of English literature to British India is absolutely insignificant, compared with the quantity taken by Victoria alone, to say nothing of the surrounding colonies. The explanation probably is, that studious Anglo-Indians are few, that they are generally mere sojourners in the land, and that the climate is not favourable to studies which make much demand on the brain.

CHAPTER VI.

ART AND AMUSEMENTS.

THE Rev. Mr. Ballantyne, in a mild spirit of remonstrance, speaks of Victorian congregations as follows:—"One of the greatest drawbacks to the work of the ministry is the strong tendency to changefulness shown by many of the congregations. Novelty has potent charms for them. The newest arrival in the metropolis and centres of population draws the crowd. Not unfrequently the tide recedes just as rapidly as it flows. And this fondness for novelty naturally enough leads to very frequent change. A minister may be received with every demonstration of welcome and affection by a people, and yet in the short space of a year or two, or less, the same people may be doing their best to get rid of him, for no very well defined reason, except that they are tired of him, and would like another. Probably this is an evil common to all communities in a formative condition, and one which time will remedy."

Mr. Ballantyne may rely on it that the evil of which he speaks, if evil it be,—is not only common to what he calls "all formative communities," but common to all human nature. The mind will stagnate anywhere without change, and everywhere it must have amusement of some kind; some are for lectures, some for concerts,

some for theatres, some for races, rowing, matches-cricket, rifle-shooting; some are for trying all these amusements in their turn; but one and all abominate dry sermons. It is the only thing in which absolute unanimity may be found. Occasionally you come on an exemplary Scotchman with whom nothing that comes from his minister is dry; but he deceives himself, and only nobly endures. Mr. Ballantyne is right in saying that the Victorians—like the Athenians —"find a potent charm in novelty." But though "the newest arrival draws the crowd," he will not draw them long or far, unless there be the necessary drawing power in him. That Victorian audiences are fond of good preaching is very true, and in this respect they are much like other people. They will often travel many miles to hear a good sermon; they sometimes import a favourite preacher with the temptation of 1000*l.* a year, or other high salary. I have often seen mixed audiences of Church of England people, Presbyterians, Unitarians, and anythingarians, assembled under the same roof to hear a Pattison or a Binney, without apparently giving a thought to the mere circumstance of the one being a Bishop, and the other an Independent.

That Australians give an undue portion of their lives to sport and pleasure, many of the more serious portion of the community honestly think, and perhaps not without some grounds for so thinking. A very fine climate has doubtless much to do with this. "*Mores hominum regioni respondent.*" The people of such a country live much in the open air. The majority of their sports, therefore, are such as can only be indulged in fields and on rivers, on lakes and in harbours. Almost every boy shoots, or fishes, or plays football or cricket, or runs mile races, or rows matches;

and many lads are adepts at most of these amusements. They, to say the least of them, give us a healthy and vigorous race; and this, so far as I have observed, without more prejudice to higher objects of life than we find to be the case in England, under similar circumstances. Only in one day in the year do almost the whole of Melbourne and the suburbs, and also large contingents from distant country districts and the adjacent colonies, pour themselves (the ladies gorgeous in the last Parisian fashions), towards one spot, the Melbourne race-course. The Cup-day is the Victorian Derby, on which occasion I have seen more than a hundred thousand people assembled. They make up sweepstakes, they picnic in every direction, in, under, and behind carriages, according to taste or necessity, and they lose their money, without losing their tempers, for rarely have any police cases arisen out of disturbances on the Melbourne race-course. In every town throughout the country, Ballarat, Sandhurst, Castlemaine, Geelong, &c., &c., a race-course and a cricket-ground are considered as necessary as a cemetery.

Concerts are largely and liberally patronized, and seldom a month goes by without an Arabella Goddard, or some such musical celebrity, arriving among them in pursuit of Australian gold. Lola Montes, Catherine Hayes, Charles Kean and Mrs. Kean, Ristori, Charles Matthews, and Sothern, besides many other English artists, have made the new "grand tour" of the Australian colonies, with satisfactory results to performers and audiences alike. Of the theatre this may be averred with truth—that Shakespeare and the higher drama are much more in request in the colonies than at home; the best proof of which is, that never a season passes but you may hear Shakespeare played at

one house or another, which is more than London itself can always say.

The Melbourne Public Library is free to all. The working man can walk in as easily as another without any previous express permission given, and the only discipline as respects visitors is but just hinted, rather than enjoined at the entrance, in the shape of ample apparatus for washing hands or face. Such soap-and-water suggestion, whether always acted on or not, is very reasonable, seeing that many of the books are very valuable, irrespective of (too frequently) their costly bindings. The number of volumes of the Melbourne Library must now have reached some 100,000; and arrangements are made for portions of this fine collection circulating round the country, to the Ballarat and others of the many free local libraries in the distant larger towns.

The Museum, under the special control of Professor McCoy, the Professor of Paleontology in the Melbourne University, is now one of the most interesting in any country. Irrespective of the many very valuable contributions which have been obtained from Europe, and other distant quarters of the world, there are in this museum one of the finest collections of objects of Australian natural history, geological, mineralogical, botanical, and arboricultural, to be met with in any city except some of the larger capitals of the old world.

The Melbourne National Gallery of Pictures and Statuary, is a grand attraction to all classes on Saturday afternoons. It contains some fine works from the easels of Edwin Long, Lee, R.A., J. R. Herbert, R.A., Webb, Goodall, Ansdell, Chevalier, Creswick, Mogford, &c., which have been purchased in England at the cost of many thousands. The

works of Bouvelot, a local French artist, attracted the very favourable attention of Mr. Lee, R.A., when he was visiting us. An annual vote of 1000*l.* is passed in the Assembly as the state contribution towards the means of making new purchases. This is frequently supplemented by private subscriptions and presentations. A new gallery, much larger than the former one, has recently been built by the Government, a work absolutely necessary, in order to provide additional wall-space for the constantly accumulating art-treasures. There is an art school too, connected with the gallery, open to pupils of both sexes. The teachers are paid by the Government, and the school is a favourite and popular one among the people of Melbourne and the surrounding suburbs.

CHAPTER VII.

THE ACCLIMATIZATION SOCIETY.

THE Acclimatization Society of Victoria has been in existence since 1857, and has by excellent management, and with moderate means, accomplished much valuable work. As most readers are aware, scarcely any animals known to Europeans are indigenous to Australia. The kangaroo, the opossum, the native bear (a species of sloth), the native dog (a sort of dwarf wolf), the emu, and the native turkey (a species of bustard), are the principal specimens of the terrestrial fauna. The fish tribes, although numerous, are decidedly inferior in value, as human food, to those of the northern hemisphere.

An Acclimatization Society, therefore, had here, from the first, rather a clear and inviting field for its operations; and governments, governors, and the public at large, well seconded its efforts. The Legislative Assembly have usually granted a liberal annual vote towards the objects of the society; and donations and subscriptions from private individuals have flowed in with sufficient liberality to enable the managing council by a system of judicious exchanges to stock the country with many valuable and interesting animals from every quarter of the globe. The Royal Park in the northern suburb of Melbourne, although government property, is placed under the control and

management of the Council, and serves as an admirable zoological garden, in connexion with the general objects of the society. Here are a large collection of animals, approaching much nearer in number and variety to that of the Regent's Park, or of the Jardin des Plantes, than a casual visitor is prepared to expect; and all this has been achieved by a few energetic colonists in little more than twenty years.

The Council of the Society consists of twelve members. Dr. Thomas Black was for many years the President, and Count Castelnau, the accomplished French Consul, the Rev. Dr. Bleasdale, Sir Samuel Wilson, the Hon. Mr. Godfrey, and others, as members of the Council, have also, for longer or shorter periods, given to the affairs of the Society in various ways, gratuitously, valuable services. Count Castelnau, being a distinguished naturalist, has by lectures and scientific preparations, thrown more light on Australian ichthyology than all other persons put together; and Baron Von Mueller, the Government Botanist, has done no less for botany and arboriculture. He found a good helpmate in the late Dr. Howitt (a brother of William Howitt) who from an early period of the colony gave much of his time both to botany and to natural history in general. Sir Samuel Wilson has very recently, at great expense to himself, succeeded completely in naturalizing the Californian salmon, and his costly salmon ponds at his fine station of Ercildown are the nurseries for this fish. He has also very liberally taken charge of a flock of Angora goats—a handsome present from the Emperor Napoleon III.—and also of a flock of ostriches, now well established. Both flocks have increased considerably. In an interesting lecture delivered some time back in Melbourne, Sir Samuel

showed clearly how profitable to the colony may hereafter become the feathers of the ostrich, and the hair of the Angora goat. The efforts of these gentlemen were well seconded in the old country, by Mr. James Youl, C.M.G., an old colonist, and by the late Mr. Edward Wilson.

With Mr. Youl, more than with any other person, rests the credit of having naturalized the British salmon in Australian waters, if that fish can even yet be truly said to be naturalized; for there are still persons who venture to question the fact. Mr. Youl himself will not entertain a doubt on the point. The first experiment of introducing salmon ova from British waters to Australia took place more than fourteen years back, and yet it is only within the last year or two that reports have been received of the true *salmo salar*—and that a very little one—having been seen on a governor's table. The ova having been first hatched in Melbourne, were for the most part transferred to Tasmania, where, in the beautiful River Derwent, the fish was considered to have the best chance of doing well. The salmon and trout ponds at Sir Robert Officer's place at New Norfolk, on the Upper Derwent, were, and still are, one of the sights of that part of the world; and more than eight years back I saw at this place specimens of the salmon trout weighing fully seven pounds. The salmon trout, indeed, is now so successfully established that large numbers of this fish have since been transferred to Melbourne for the purpose of stocking the Australian waters.

The interest taken in this salmon experiment in Tasmania was for some years intense, and occupied the public mind like an "Eastern question." All society, when I visited Tasmania, was divided into believers and sceptics. Sir Valentine Fleming was then—eight years ago—the Chief

Justice of the colony, and on my asking him how the conflicting evidence on the all-engrossing question affected his mind, he first looked cautiously round the room, to see that he was not overheard, and then, with judicial caution, stated "that he had his doubts, but that party-feeling ran so high on the subject, that it was hardly prudent to express them in public."

In respect to some other animals, however, the colonists have been but too successful. Rabbits have become a frightful nuisance to the squatter and farmer in many parts of the country, and large sums have been spent from time to time to keep them down. Under this scourge Australia suffers much, as some extensive districts in South America suffered generations back, where, according to Sir Arthur Helps, the rabbit had, in different parts, eaten out (so to speak) every other form of quadruped life.[1] This must ever be the case in warm and temperate climates, and in sparsely populated countries. The rabbit as well as the hare breeds in the fine climate of Australia all the year round; and the hare very commonly has a litter of four or five leverets at once, and when full grown is generally of a larger size than the animal attains to in this northern climate. The latest device for the destruction of the rabbit has been reported to us within the last few weeks. It has been proposed to poison him, but there is a difficulty in the way, inasmuch as by poisoning you may get rid of other animals which you are anxious to protect.

Ferrets have been introduced in some neighbourhoods, but I have heard a rather romancing South Australian settler say "that such was the dulcifying effect of the

[1] The latest advices from Victoria inform us that the Legislature had just passed an act for the suppression of the rabbit nuisance.

climate that the ferrets, instead of preying upon, actually fraternized with the rabbits;" an alliance not easy to believe in, without very strong evidence, seeing that the one diets on blood and the other on grass.

The sparrow is now to be found in thousands throughout the colony; and it is said that occasionally even the notes of the skylark and thrush are heard in the neighbourhood of Melbourne. It is on record, in the transactions of the Society, that the Baroness Burdett Coutts, some years back, promised, as her contribution to the song-birds of the colony, to establish the nightingale; and, if this be true, we may feel assured that she endeavoured to keep her word. But whether it be that the notes of a song-bird specially attract the attention of hawks—which are numerous—or that there is some other more occult obstacle to the naturalizing of song-birds in a new country, certain it is that, whilst the sparrow is in myriads, the note of the nightingale is never heard, although many hundreds of this and of other English song-birds have been liberated in the colony.

Pheasants and partridges have become so numerous in New Zealand, and even in some parts of Australia, that the farmers, upon whom the burthen of feeding them is unavoidably cast, look not altogether approvingly on this work of the Acclimatization Society.

It need hardly be said, therefore, that there are no game laws against the destruction of rabbit, hare, pheasant, or partridge, or indeed against the killing or capture of any other wild animal except the deer. "Close seasons," of course, there are—under Acts of Council—to prevent the continuous and indiscriminate taking of such animals as the colonists desire to foster; but this is the utmost extent to

which the authorities interfere with the sportsman handling either rod or gun. Coursing has become a sport as common and as popular as in England. The fallow deer, although well established among the hills, is as yet regarded as somewhat too sacred a creature to be "stalked" by all and sundry who may have a taste for venison.

Of all the numerous species of exotics which have been introduced to Australia, none have succeeded better than the vine; not even the orange, which comes to perfection on the Sydney and Adelaide sides. In the year 1876-7 there were 4765 acres returned as under vines in Victoria, and the produce of wine in that year was 481,588 gallons, and 3725 gallons of brandy. Vineyards in beautiful trim may be seen in every district, and some wealthy men have applied themselves to the business of wine-making with a degree of success which, in a few years, must prove as profitable to themselves as advantageous, even morally, to the country. People who drink wine rarely drink spirits, as may be proved in various wine-producing countries. The Tabilk Vineyard and the Hon. J. G. Francis's vineyard at Sunbury; M. Belporond's near Geelong, Mr. Fallon's in the Murray district, and many others, have long since turned out some of the finest wine of a Burgundy and claret character, which meets with a ready market in the colony. It would perhaps sell as freely in England if the English Government would consent to remit the excess of duty imposed on Australian wine beyond that charged on the wines of France and Germany. These duties are regulated by the alcoholic strength of the wines, all wines of and exceeding twenty-six degrees of strength being charged two shillings and sixpence a gallon, and all within that limit a shilling a gallon. Many of the Australian wines

have been proved to be genuine unfortified wines, and yet exceeding twenty-six degrees—frequently ranging up to, and even beyond, thirty. If England were to reduce the duty on Australian wine, she would be at the same time extending the market for her own goods. The difference of duty is a drawback of three shillings a dozen on the sale of the Australian article in the mother-country, which of itself is a very substantial obstacle to these wines becoming extensively consumed here.

They are better appreciated, as we have good reason to believe, on the Continent. At the Paris Exhibition just brought to a close, was a very fair display of Australian wine, not merely that of Victoria, but also the produce of South Australia, and of New South Wales.

It has at more than one International Exhibition received most favourable judgments from the jurors, and the only objection that can be urged against it is that it is generally much dearer than are good "dinner clarets" which are already well established in the English market.

Not a few of the smaller goldfields vineyards are doing well, although some of them are very small. But even an acre of land suitable to the vine will, when tended, yield very profitable results. Several of these I have visited, and carefully examined, with the assistance of their owners.

At Beechworth, and in the surrounding country extending to Albury in New South Wales, the vine is successfully cultivated. By far the most successful wine-makers are, of course, Frenchmen and Germans. A Mr. Zimmerman at Beechworth has a very well-managed vineyard of an acre and a quarter in extent, of which I sent the following short description to the *Times*, published on the 20th of April, 1863:—"Upon the proceeds of the

sale of wine and fruit from this small bit of ground, he, his wife, and a very nearly grown-up son live comfortably. He gets 1*l.* a gallon on the spot for all the wine he can make, and for the table he obtained this year (1863) from 200 three-year-old vines, the enormous quantity of 1600 lbs. of the finest grapes. But the vineyard is cultivated like a trim garden, and is so much his pet that he sleeps in it. Like his namesake of the treatise, he seems to have a taste for solitude, and he passes his nights, until his crop is in, concealed in a little tent, in the midst of his vines, with a gun by his side, and surrounded by a system of strings connected with bells, so that when larcenous Chinamen venture into his ground the bells ring, and the owner is aroused against his invaders. Mr. Zimmerman is only one of many German cultivators in this part who are doing equally well. The statistical returns of the first quarter of 1863 for the Albury district —which, together with Beechworth is in the neighbourhood of the Murray River—give, besides wheat, hay, maize, barley, oats, potatoes, &c., 60,840 lbs. of tobacco, and 40,360 gallons of wine." We thus see that there is an almost unlimited field in this as in many other districts for the production of the above, as well as of so many other important necessaries and luxuries of life.

CHAPTER VIII.

ABOUT OUR NEXT-DOOR NEIGHBOURS.

ONE evening,[1]—I think it was in the year 1845,—Major B——t, an early and most worthily influential settler in South Australia, was seated in his hut—house you could scarcely call it,—surrounded by his family, and in front of a comfortable blazing log fire. He was a sheep farmer, just free from debt, but far from rich. He had sons and daughters growing up about him, and he was not without anxiety, for South Australia at that time was labouring under what was called "a depression." Among the little family thus assembled, was a son-in-law of Major B——t, Mr. M——, who knew many things unknown to the circle by which he was surrounded. As the evening gossip went on, Mr. M——'s eye was attracted by some blue and green stones on the little mantelpiece of the cottage. "Why, what are these," said he, "you have here?" "Oh," answered the Major, "they are merely some curious coloured stones the boys have picked up on the run, from a lot more of the same sort lying about." Mr. M——, being a tolerable mineralogist, replied, "why, these stones are blue and green carbonates of copper, and where they

[1] The particulars of this chapter I had from the Major and another "Nob."

came from there must be a mine." Major B——t's interest in the matter was excited, and on the next morning, in company with his son-in-law, the ground was examined. Here was a great family secret. The spot was crown land, held by the Major merely on licence, as part of a sheep run. Although now the populous and flourishing town of Kapunda—a township originally clustering itself around the mine,—it was then purchasable from the Government, in an 80-acre block, at 1*l.* an acre. He gave notice to the Government of his intention to buy it. Before the sale came off, he found that another colonist by some chance had discovered the secret. Here was a difficulty. The Major might be run up at the sale, if there were more than one bid. The rival parties met, and it was agreed that the land should be bought by the Major at the minimum of 1*l.* per acre, and that the other party should have one-fourth, i. e. a 20*l.* worth of interest in the purchase. The land was secured accordingly. The next consideration was, how to work and develope the mine, if mine it should turn out to be. Major B——t at this time was, as I have said, very far from rich, and had no means to throw away on developing mines. He went to the Bank of South Australia, and wished to borrow 100*l.*, which, after mature consideration, and after securing "two other good names to the Bill," the astute banker, Mr. Edward Stephens, agreed to advance. From the first opening of the mine, it proved to be rich. The 20*l.* gentleman at once came to England and sold his fourth to a London firm for 25,000*l.*, no bad return for his 20*l.* investment. Major B——t retained his three-fourths, although offered 75,000*l.* for them, and went on working the property, which in a few

months began to bring him in steadily about 9000*l.* a year.

As may be supposed, not merely South Australia, but all the neighbouring colonies soon began to talk of copper and of the new millionaire as the Major was considered to be. Why should there be only one copper-mine, why only one millionaire? It was a curious accident certainly, that the chance recognition of a bit of copper ore should have led to such a stroke of fortune; but now that many eyes knew "blue and green carbonates," why should not systematic search be made for other copper deposits? Many men addressed themselves to the task. Within a few months another "cropping-out" of copper ore was discovered many miles farther inland. It was the spot subsequently known as the Princess Royal. It was determined that "a special survey" of 20,000 acres should be bought, which, in such quantity could be secured without competition, at 1*l.* an acre. There was only one difficulty, but that rather a serious one. No one man, nor any imaginable combination of men, had 20,000*l.* What was to be done? Whilst the shrewd men of Adelaide were pondering this difficulty, an old shepherd came into town, and reported that some seven miles away from the already selected spot was another fine "cropping-out" of copper, better than the one proposed to be purchased. The old shepherd was voted an old fool, and for some time no one attended to him. But he was pertinacious, and urged his own view of the matter, until at last a committee were despatched from Adelaide, to see whether there was anything in the old shepherd's story. They found that his "cropping-out" was certainly as promising as their own "cropping-out;" but here was another difficulty. The two croppings-out

were some seven miles from each other, and the wildest dreams of the projectors could not go beyond, even if they could achieve one 20,000*l.* What was to be done? Necessity is the mother of invention. An ingenious surveyor suggested that if the land were resurveyed, and the parallelogram considerably narrowed, the twenty thousand acres might be made to comprise both "croppings-out." The calculation proved correct. The land was resurveyed; the parallelogram was narrowed; both the fine indications were found to lie just within the 20,000 acre block, but at its opposite extremities, and therefore seven miles apart. The next difficulty was to find the money. Very few persons, either gentlemen or tradesmen had much money to spare.

The gentry alone, called "the nobs," could not buy the land by themselves. The tradesmen, called "the snobs," were in no better case. There was a third power in the state called "the South Australian Company," the manager of which was the late much respected Mr. Giles. Giles was a little colonial Jupiter, in his way, being the representative of a body of English capitalists, and was therefore looked up to as one almost capable of swaying the Adelaide money-market by his nod. He determined himself to go into this copper venture on behalf of his company; and when this became known, nobs and snobs alike coveted his co-operation. He inclined to the nobs. The appointed day for the sale was drawing nigh, and neither party was ready with its 10,000*l.* to put to Giles's 10,000*l.* The Government, it was said, would take nothing but sovereigns. Nobs and snobs alike were in a terrible fix. Adelaide diplomacy was never so severely taxed, either before or since. The day for the sale was at hand; but where the

20,000*l.* in hard cash? Giles, although his sympathies were with the nobs, liberally announced that he was ready to go in with either party. The nobs on the very eve of the day of sale were reported as ready. The snobs were not so, but with exemplary energy, it was said that the very shop-tills were being cleared out, to make up the snob 10,000*l.* All the parties were to meet to discuss ways and means. Mr. Giles presided. The nobs, being ready, were quiet, and composed. The snobs not being ready were fidgety, and for postponement. The time having expired within which the money was to be available, the nobs claim to have the snobs excluded from further action. "Close the doors," cry some of the nobs; "the company and the nobs are to be the purchasers." Before the doors can be closed, a flushed, agitated, panting snob rushes in, and throws on the table before Giles a great bag of sovereigns as much as he, a strong man, could stagger under. "You are too late!" exclaims Giles. "You are too late!" echo the nobs. "Not so," replies the snob, "*we* have the gold; the Government will take nothing but gold. The other party have not the gold, and are not ready: *we* are first ready." The judicial Giles cannot meet the force of the argument. "Well," says he, "*are* there 10,000 sovereigns there?" "Count them," cries the snob. Giles becomes excited into a cross-examining tone, and demands again, "Yes or no, are there 10,000 sovereigns there?" "There will be," replies the snob, "by the time you have counted them." "Close the doors," repeat the now impatient nobs. "The time is up. We are ready; the other party are not; close the doors." The doors are closed. At that instant, however, a thundering knock came at the door. It is reopened, for such a knock can only indicate that the

house is on fire, or that some one had dropped down dead. A breathless snob—followed by a string of equally breathless snobs—rushes in, and throws upon the table the residue of the 10,000*l.* Now ensues a dispute as to which party is entitled to be taken in with the company. No time is to be lost in completing their arrangements. The sale is to take place in a few hours; and 20,000 sovereigns must be handed over for 20,000 acres of land. Mr. Giles seems inclined to decree in favour of the nobs. At this the snobs present are almost frantic, until the brilliant thought struck a leading snob, to demand of Mr. Giles "whether he himself was ready with *his* 10,000*l.* for the company?" The question seemed to cause lock-jaw to that excellent old gentleman. The fact was, he was not ready. But he has been hourly expecting the gold by the brig "Dorset," from Sydney, which has not yet arrived; and, failing her arrival in time, he had been relying on the Bank of South Australia coming to his aid with the necessary amount of discount. The bank, however, had not notified that it would come to his aid, and he is on his beam-ends. The nobs, now awake to the risk they had run in confiding too blindly on Giles's cash-resources, rather than lose the purchase threw themselves at once into the arms of the snobs. Within the next few hours, this property, worth upwards of a million of money, was knocked down to the allied forces of nobs and snobs for 20,000*l.*

Although, however, these forces had thus been driven into co-operation by the urgency of their case, they could not long act in concert. The nobs wished for a division of the property; the snobs were willing to work the mines for the joint benefit of both parties. Division, however, was resolved on, and as one end of the block of land seemed,

from surface indications, as good as the other, it was divided transversely into halves of 10,000 acres each. Two slips of paper representing "Princess Royal" and "Burra" were put into a glass; a little boy was called from the street to draw for the parties; the Burra was drawn for the snobs, the Princess Royal for the nobs. The Princess Royal never paid for working her; the Burra, as it was opened up, got richer and richer, until it became rather quarrying than mining; the shares rose in price rapidly from 5*l.* to upwards of 300*l.*, as each 5*l.* share for many years yielded annually 40*l.* in dividends. The Princess Royal was, after many years of unprofitable working, abandoned as a mining speculation, and the land was subsequently resold as a sheep-run, the pasturage being as good as any in the province.

I once went all through the different galleries of the Burra mine in company with some of the directors, who were on the spot for their monthly survey. Descending a ten-fathom-deep shaft by a perpendicular ladder fixed to one of its walls is not an operation enjoyed by those who, like myself, are new to it. I was told that some nervous visitors had been seized, in the course of their descent, with a shuddering fit, unable to go down any farther or to come up again. They would cling convulsively to the spokes of the ladder until a miner came to them, fastened a rope round their bodies, and so got them hauled upwards and out of their perilous situation.

Never having been in a copper-mine before, I could give no very critical account of it. I got down comfortably enough to the twenty fathom level under the guidance of "the Captain" and his "Directors." Here the wonders of this most extraordinary and gigantic freak of nature opened upon us. Above our heads, beneath our feet, on either side

of us, were the richest ores in boundless profusion Malachite, blue and green carbonates; red, black, and grey oxides, interspersed with native copper, were all mingled together. From this gallery we were led to another, and another, and another, ascending and descending to higher and lower levels, in wandering mazes lost; and everywhere the display was much the same. "Why did you not quarry this?" I asked, "instead of going to such expense in shafts, galleries, and making things safe with timber?" "So we should," was the answer; "but we could not tell on the surface that we had got a copper quarry, and as we commenced working 'her' (all mines are feminine) as a mine, we have gone on in the same way." And this busy scene, and these wonderful works, are all traceable to the fact that Mr. M—— knew copper ore when he saw it on Major B——t's mantelpiece.

From the general depression under which South Australia was labouring at the time of the discovery of the Burra mine, the whole province rapidly recovered after that discovery.

I was informed at the time, by one of the largest copper merchants in London, that there were then only two very large deposits of copper in the known world. The Devon Great Consols was one, and the Cobra Copper Mine the other. Of course the Burra made a third, and the vast quantities of the metal sent from this mine to Swansea at once attracted the attention of miners and capitalists, and South Australia, as a consequence, sprang, as a colony, into the notice of the emigrating class. "The Moonta," and other mines still richer than the Burra (now no longer worked), have been since discovered. Thousands of miners, farmers, artisans, and others, thronged to these South

Australian mines until 1851, when another crisis in the affairs of that colony took place, as disturbing as any it had yet known.

As soon as it was distinctly ascertained that there were rich gold discoveries in New South Wales and Port Phillip, at once the copper-miners, almost to a man, as well as many thousands of other persons in every class of life, made off to the more tempting scene of action. The Burra and other mines were for a time shut up, and for a little while some timid people thought the colony was going to shut up too. The price of all properties fell, houses and shops could be bought for an old song, and dismay sat on the face of all whose affairs kept them in the now half-deserted town and country.

The ruling powers of South Australia were, however, equal to the occasion. If they had not gold, they had plenty of land. Many of the South Australians who had left their families behind them in the first rush to the gold, when they had made their pile, returned to their old abodes. The South Australian Government took gold for land; set about coining and issuing a sort of home-made sovereign (without the royal licence, by-the-bye), which was so good an approach to her Majesty's manufacture—at any rate as respects weight and fineness—that all the South Australians took these tokens as readily as they took sovereigns, and so immense quantities of South Australian land were sold in exchange for Victorian gold. Thus, to the extent to which this operation was carried on, South Australia more benefited by the gold than did the country where it was got. The precious metal went into South Australian coffers; and, in addition, this colony obtained a permanent resident, settled down upon her own soil. Consequently

South Australia now, with land generally inferior to that of Victoria, not only fully supplies herself, but exports such vast quantities of wheat and flour to England that a fleet of vessels may be seen at particular seasons in the South Australian waters to receive the merchants' consignments of bread-stuffs for the mother-country. On the other hand, Victoria has never yet raised corn enough for her own consumption, although this kind of produce has, even with her —as before stated—been greatly increasing latterly from year to year.

In this colony of South Australia, indeed, party politics and class animosities seem to have less impeded general progress than we find to be the case among some of her neighbours. She has repeatedly gone in for great achievements, and has generally succeeded. But for her, and for the numerous exploring parties she sent forth, the interior of the island-continent would not have been nearly as well known to us as it now is. But for her push and enterprise we should probably even yet have been without complete telegraphic communication between England and every, even the remotest, part of Australia. In return for this great work of a "through" telegraph from south to north, she has had ceded to her, from the Crown, all the territory which her name now covers on the map. It is a white—a very white—elephant, it is true, as yet, for it imposes on her the duty and responsibility of, in some sort, governing and administering all this additional country without any present prospect of finding much advantage in it. The northern portion of this newly acquired territory, now rapidly becoming occupied by Chinese as well as by Europeans, is beginning to clamour for some sort of separate legislation and administration, as it is more than two

thousand miles distant from Adelaide, the present seat of government in the South. The evils resulting from this have already appeared in a most practical, costly, and embarrassing shape. Of course English law must be administered in the northern portion of the colony as in the south; and it is the glory of the Australian colonies that, amidst all the contentions and rivalries, and even jobberies—for jobberies there have been and are among their governments and politicians—very rarely has there been any serious complaint of the administration of justice in their supreme courts. The supreme courts of a colony must, of course, act in and for the *whole* colony; and thus South Australian supreme court judges must go as far as their writs run. The consequences have proved at once disastrous and ridiculous. Only a year or two back, one supreme court judge, a sheriff, tipstaff, and all the paraphernalia of a criminal court were shipped off from Adelaide, at a cost of many hundreds of pounds, in a steamer, to travel by sea upwards of three thousand miles, to a gaol delivery in the northern territory. The gaol had to be delivered only of one Chinaman, the one solitary prisoner for trial. He was tried, convicted, sentenced, and ultimately contrived to escape. Court, sheriff, tipstaff, and many others were all drowned on their return, the steamer which carried them having been wrecked on a reef on a very dangerous part of the coast. Going circuit between Adelaide and the northern territory is much as if we in England were to send our judges and counsel from London to try prisoners at the Cape of Good Hope. And the latter trip, although a little longer, is not nearly so dangerous as the other. Sooner or later, therefore, and the sooner the better, provision must be made for the more effectual administration of law, at least in the northern territory; and

for this purpose some sort of local government would appear to be absolutely necessary.

Our other inconveniently big neighbour is New South Wales; and the inconvenience is about equal on both sides of the Murray river, which is the Victorian boundary on the north. Even to the reader taking a casual glance at the map, it seems to be a queer distribution of territory, when we find what appears to be little Victoria jammed away down into the extreme south-eastern corner of that vast island. The boundary was fixed many years back by the colonial office upon the best information it could then obtain, which was bad and misleading. It has proved disastrous to all the New South Wales territory south of the Murrumbidgee river. As I had occasion to inform Lord Kimberley some five years back, "the remoteness, and almost isolation of the Riverina territory (as it is called) from the capital of New South Wales, have proved to be a most serious obstacle to the prosperity and advancement of the district. By a sort of geographical necessity shipping almost all her produce, and drawing almost all her supplies through Melbourne, the Sydney Government has scarcely ever taken notice of Riverina except for the purpose of taxing her. Victoria can of course expend no portion of her revenue on a district whence she derives no income; and thus between the neglect of her own government, and her political separation from Victoria, the growth of the unfortunate district has always been very effectually retarded." No wonder, therefore, that the aggrieved settlers in this sort of "no man's land," have from time to time very vigorously agitated for annexation to Victoria. Such an arrangement provided no recent political difficulties have arisen to oppose it, would really conduce to the interests of both colonies.

CHAPTER IX.

TARIFFS AND FEDERATION.

It has been recently reported that New South Wales, South Australia, Queensland, and Tasmania contemplate forming among themselves a customs union on a liberal and free-trade basis. Should this be so, it is difficult to see how Victoria could afterwards maintain her isolation, as an extractor of 15 and 20 per cent. duties on goods imported to that colony. With a frontier of hundreds of miles, north, south, and west, consisting of an easily passed river here, or an imaginary, or magnetically defined line there, goods, in any quantity from the free-trade colonies would come pouring over the border, on every side; and it would require an army of custom-house officers to keep them out, or rather in striving to do so, for they would most assuredly fail. Of course Victoria would not have a colour of right to object to such a convention, nor perhaps would she long desire to do so after finding that by a rapid process, Adelaide, Sydney, Brisbane, and Hobart Town were drawing to themselves the ships and cargoes which previously had made their way to Melbourne. The effect, in the breaking in of Victoria, to liberality in her trade, would be much like that of putting a wild elephant between tame ones, a *vis major* which no economical heresy, however stubborn, could long resist. Such an union as that above indicated, but not embracing so many colonies, was proposed by some of them as far back as the year 1871.

"The object of the Tariff conference," writes Sir James Milne Wilson (Chief Secretary of Tasmania) to Lord Kimberley, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, "held in Melbourne last year, was, to establish a commercial union of the Australias and New Zealand on the basis of a common tariff, with a distribution of the customs revenue to the several colonies, according to population. That object was found at the time to be unattainable; and the conference adopted a unanimous resolution to the effect that it was desirable that the Colonial Legislatures should be freed from Imperial restrictions on their reciprocal fiscal arrangements." Lord Kimberley objected to the proposal (although there was a precedent for it, as he admitted), on the ground that it was only a partial one. It seems that he had no objection to urge, provided that the arrangement had comprehended all the Australian colonies. Even a partial union, we should have thought—though it had been limited but to two colonies—would have been better than none at all. It would have served as a shoeing-horn to a larger combination, as the outsiders would sooner or later have perceived the policy of coming into such an arrangement. Nor would the adoption by Lord Kimberley of the proposal have involved the British Government in any breach of treaty with foreign powers, inasmuch as these latter would, equally, to the extent of their trade with Australia, share with England in the benefits to result from such an union. "Her Majesty's Government are bound to say," writes Lord Kimberley, "that the measure proposed seems to them inconsistent with those principles of free-trade which they believe to be alone permanently conducive to commercial prosperity." The objection to the proposal—as contended by Lord Kimberley, was the "sanction to pro-

tection which it seemed to give under the name of reciprocity." Sir John Milne Wilson failed to see the force of the objection, and so probably will the reader. If two colonies for this fiscal purpose make themselves one; although they may be benefited, who is injured? If five or six colonies do the same thing, it is only the same kind of operation, on a larger scale; and so far from injuring, or having a tendency to injure either England or any other part of the world, it would open up to all a vastly enlarged market in respect to which there are now unnecessary and injurious restrictions.

Cast your eye again over the map of New Holland, and you see, it is true, five separate, and, in respect to each other, independent colonies of Western Australia, South Australia, Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland. But practically, and for all Politico-Economical purposes, they may, and should be regarded as one grand continuous territory, beneficently endowed with every variety of natural resources that can lie within lands and climates which stretch from the tropic on the north, to a point which gives us a more exquisite England, in the beautiful Island of Tasmania on the south. That these different English-speaking colonies should be keeping up expensive Customs Establishments as against each other, certainly gives them much the appearance of the Exeter Change monkeys of old, who as the late Colonel Thomson said, invariably when they were fed strove to clutch at each other's trough, spilling a good deal in the process, and thus showing themselves "shockingly human."

Tasmania abounds in the finest fruits and timber, and in no part of Kent have I seen more magnificent crops of hops. Queensland, even at her present rate of production,

will soon supply sugar, tobacco, coffee, arrowroot, and other tropical crops more than enough for the whole Australian continent. South Australia grows and exports thousands of tons of bread-stuffs. New South Wales, besides much more remarkable deposits of gold, tin, copper, antimony, &c., than she gets credit for, possesses such enormous and widespread coal-fields (the coal in any quantity being in close proximity with iron), that nothing can prevent her from eventually becoming the principal manufacturing colony of the Australian group. Victoria, comparatively small though she be in point of territory, yet from her central situation, compactness, and variety of resources, commands also advantages peculiarly her own. Trade should circulate through this vast Island Continent as free and unchecked as the blood circulates through the human frame. In taxing each other, therefore, they are deliberately punishing themselves, by partial annihilation of their own productive powers.

It is therefore not improbable that if the report as to the more recently proposed union be true, her Majesty's present Government would not only not decline to entertain it, but would recognize it as a very important step in the right direction. It is a matter of growing interest, even to the mother country, and her commerce, seeing that the ever-improving means of inter-communication between Europe and Australia, and in the colonies themselves, now make trade as easy among them, as it is between England and Scotland. Lastly, such a customs union would remove the principal obstacle to a federation of these colonies, a consummation which whilst increasing and consolidating their own resources would as certainly add most materially to the strength and influence of the Empire at large.

CHAPTER X.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS—PUBLIC HEALTH.

If I were to say that there are no Poor Laws in this country, I should say what is true, according to the letter, and yet the reader would be misled. The extent to which, not merely Victoria, but all the Australian colonies have established charitable institutions of all kinds, has frequently drawn expressions of admiration and surprise from visitors from other lands. The good intentions of the charitable are perhaps as much abused and imposed upon in this new country as in the old one.

As there will always be found eager recipients for every bounty, misplaced charity must everywhere have a necessary tendency to generate fresh demands on it. The expenditure in 1876 on the various charitable institutions amounted to 302,885*l.* The receipts for the same purpose in the same year were 318,823*l.*; 225,424*l.* of which was provided by Parliamentary votes, 51,587*l.* from private contributions, and 31,812*l.* from other sources.

The Melbourne and Alfred Hospitals, the Benevolent Asylum, and the Ballarat Hospital, are on a scale equal to the best of the London Hospitals, and are as well conducted in respect to their medical staffs, as in all other essentials of such institutions. Besides these, there are both in the

capital, and throughout the country, many similar establishments, for local purposes. There are also lying-in-hospitals, a blind asylum, a deaf and dumb asylum, an asylum for inebriates, and eye and ear hospital, female refuges, &c.

"The Sailors' Home" is one of the most valuable institutions in the country, and has saved many a poor fellow from the crimps, and other impostors to be found infesting every port, in every country. The Melbourne Lunatic Asylum is one of the noblest institutions of the kind in the world. It is supported by the Government, and is managed on the most modern and scientific principles. In addition to this there are other asylums of the same kind, conducted by medical superintendents on their own account, as in this country. Many of the patients who find their way into these refuges need never have got there at all but for drink and reckless living. It is well that these are an exceptional class, or the burthens of the colony in charitable institutions would be very much greater than they are.

"Public health" in Victoria stands higher than in England. The death-rate is lower, for persons of all ages, and many attain to a very great age. Some diseases common in the mother country, are unknown in the colony. Small Pox, for instance, although it has once or twice by inadvertence of the authorities obtained entrance to Australia, has always been rapidly stamped out. Hydrophobia has never been known in any part of New Holland, a mystery which has long interested and puzzled the scientific, and must perhaps remain a puzzle to the end of time.

It is a common observation in Australia, that middle-aged people going there from the mother country almost

renew their youth. The best samples of this happy state of things must be Mr. Hayter's three old people—see Appendix D—aged respectively 101, 103, and 114. As no evidence appears about this last case, others perhaps, as well as such doubters as the late Sir George Cornewall Lewis, may be allowed to suspend their belief in the existence of this 114 years old person, although recorded in Mr. Hayter's tables. Without certificates of birth, it is certain that little confidence can be placed in the statements of uneducated old people, touching their age.

FUTURE RELATIONS.

In these latter days when eleven young Australians run from one side of the world to the other to play, and win thirty out of thirty-four cricket matches, from our crack English players, it is amusing to read how Charles Lamb in his day felt and thought about Australia. Writing to his friend Baron Field, the first Supreme Court Judge in Sydney, he says, "When I think how welcome the sight of a letter from the world where you were born must be to you in that strange one to which you have been transplanted, I feel some compunctious visitings at my long silence. But indeed it is no easy effort to set about a correspondence at our distance. The weary world of waters between us oppresses the imagination. It is difficult to conceive how a scrawl of mine should ever stretch across it. It is a sort of presumption to expect that one's thoughts should live so far. It is like writing for posterity; and reminds me of one of Mrs. Rowe's superscriptions, 'Alcandar to Stre-

phon, in the Shades.' . . . . I cannot imagine to myself whereabouts you are. When I try to fix it, Peter Wilkins' Island comes across me. Sometimes you seem to be in the Hades of Thieves. I see Diogenes prying among you with his perpetual fruitless lantern. What must you be willing by this time to give for the sight of an honest man? You must almost have forgotten how we look. And tell me, what your Sydneyites do? Are they th—v—ng all day long? Merciful heaven! what property can stand against such a depredation? The kangaroos—your aborigines,—do they keep their primitive simplicity un-Europe tainted, with those little short fore-puds looking like a lesson framed by nature to the pickpocket! Marry, for diving into fobs they are rather lamely provided à priori; but if the hue-and-cry were once up, they would show as fair a pair of hind-shifters as the expertest loco-motor in the colony. . . . .

"Do you grow your own hemp? What is your staple trade, exclusive of the national profession, I mean? Your locksmiths, I take it, are some of your great capitalists."

To this "Peter Wilkins" like island, people now run by a steamer, with as much indifference as if they were merely going to Canada or the United States; and her trade, about which Charles Lamb made such facetious inquiries, has become a matter of millions.

Science and steam have brought us, if we may measure distance by days, four times nearer to Australia than we were only some fifteen years ago. If we hark back still farther to the times of the earlier navigators, we find that the first settlers in New South Wales passed eight or nine months at sea, before they reached their destination. The same voyage is now done in thirty-eight days. The present

generation may live to be able to get from London to Melbourne in little more than three weeks. Already we travel the same distance in less time than it took thirty years back to get from this country to New York by the old American liners. The communication between England and the Antipodes by telegraph looks to many people like a miracle; for a telegraphic message from Melbourne, or Adelaide to London, often, by our clock, reaches us, apparently, before it is despatched from the other side of the world.

We have here an amusing consequence of the speed with which electricity outstrips the sun.

The people of South Australia, with their usual spirit of enterprise, have long since meditated the building of a railway between their capital, Adelaide, and Port Darwin on the north-western limb of the vast island. The making of such a railway is a mere question of time; for already the government of the colony have contracts in progress for the completion of a line 200 miles north of Port Augusta. Only about 2000 miles more, over a very easy country for railway construction, would be required to enable the traveller to reach Port Darwin by rail. The line would follow pretty closely the direction of the telegraph which several years ago was constructed by the South Australian Government, and which, with scarcely any interruption, has been in operation ever since. A railway across the island to Port Darwin would (to use a common expression), "bring the southern and eastern portions of Australia at least a week, or ten days nearer to London." Assuming that the everlasting Eastern Question will get itself settled some time or other, the day may come when a railway will be made from the southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula

to the shores of the Mediterranean. Such a work certainly does not seem more improbable of realization than did the great task of Mr. Lesseps only nineteen years back. For the well-informed writer of the *Times* annual summary for the year 1859, says, "At this moment the French Government is pushing on with extraordinary zeal the suspicious project of the impracticable Suez Canal." Nineteen years after the above words were written, we find England not only using "this suspicious and impracticable work" more than all other powers put together, but she has even become one of its most important proprietors and guardians.[1]

Returning to railway communication through Australia and Southern Asia to England, we may be allowed to speculate whether "this comparative annihilation of space

[1] Apropos of the Suez Canal, the reader will be amused at the following Palmerstonian prophecy, which will be found in page 311, vol. ii. of the cheap edition of "The Life, Letters, and Journals of George Ticknor." Writing in the year 1857, he has these words:—"I (i. e. Ticknor) told Lord Palmerston that I had been dining where I met Lesseps, and that he was full of his canal. 'He may be full of his canal,' said the Premier, 'but his canal will never be full of water, as the world will see.' And then, having laughed heartily at his own poor joke, he went on, and abused Lesseps, quite as much as, two hours before, Lesseps had abused him, though in a somewhat graver tone, explaining all the while his objections to the grand project, which it still seems to me can do England no harm, though it may much harm the stockholders, which is quite another thing."

At the recent Paris Exhibition was a magnificent model of the Suez Canal, from Port Said to the harbour at Suez; and M. Lesseps on Saturday afternoons delighted crowded audiences by lecturing on the origin, progress, and construction of the great work, not forgetting to fight over again, with all the good-humour of a Frenchman, his many battles with Lord Palmerston, who by dint of his influence with the Khedive and the Porte, threw so many obstacles in M. Lesseps' way.

and time will tend to unite politically the Australian colonies and the mother-country more closely to each other?" Practically, England, if she can continue to retain her dominion over her colonies, enlarges her territory fifty-fold, and her influence among the nations indefinitely. Mr. Gladstone, in his very interesting article "Our Kin beyond Sea," has said, that for the purpose of federal government, continuous territory "is vital." Others have expressed the same opinion, but without feeling so confident that in these days of advanced intercommunication between peoples, the colonies might not be in some fashion represented in the British Legislature, for this would appear to be indispensable to Imperial Federation. "Is such Representation," it has been demanded, "impossible?" Is Melbourne, or Sydney, much more remote from St. Stephen's, for legislative purposes, than San Francisco from Washington? "Do mere strips of sea,"—the Federalist demands,—"make the difference?" Is it impossible for human ingenuity to get over the difficulty? Are the questions which would come up in such an Imperial House of Commons, so numerous, or so intricate, that they could not be disposed of to the satisfaction of both England and the colonies? Adam Smith expressed himself hopefully on the point even in his day, when steam and telegraph were not. Many of the obstacles discussed by him have disappeared. Some others perhaps have come into existence. That the attachment of these communities to the mother country is almost passionately strong, cannot be doubted; and although this may be merely for a generation or two, yet identity of kin is itself a force. If Rome held Britain for upwards of four hundred years as portion of her empire, and that too when this country was regarded as almost

beyond the confines of the Roman[2] world, does it seem altogether absurd that Great Britain may yet be able to reconcile colonial self-government with Imperial Dominion? If she fail to do it, it will not, I think, be with Australia's assistance, nor without her regret.

A writer in one of our monthly periodicals has recently said, that "events are now hurrying on," which must soon compel the mother country to take the one course or the other; to decide for Imperialism, or to contract her territory and responsibilities to something of her limits before she had colonies in all parts of the world. It is a very momentous question, and even the most far-sighted politicians must feel baffled in the attempt to prefigure to themselves the position England would probably hold amongst the great powers, after the loss of her colonies. Her own determination in respect to a policy irrevocable, would of course only be arrived at after maturest deliberation of her rulers for the time being, and probably would largely depend on the colonies themselves. Some of our colonies seem scarcely to comprehend what is necessarily implied in the fact that politically they are still portions of the empire. It cannot be doubted that the Canadian people for instance would resent any imputation against them to the effect that they desire a political severance from Great Britain; or that they intend to become incorporated with the United States. But in what essential particular would a customs-union with America differ from such severance? Were Canada to admit American goods free, and to tax British goods as the Americans at present tax all foreign goods entering their ports, she would be, to all intents and purposes, as

[2] Legions, however, are simpler instruments of government than Legislatures and Cabinets.

much American in policy as are the Americans themselves. The appointment of a colonial Governor by the crown would thereafter be but a naked, unprofitable, and in certain contingencies a dangerous form. Nominally only would Canada be British; substantially, American. Nominally, Great Britain would be regarded as the natural defender of a people whose fiscal policy nevertheless treated their defender as an alien; whilst nominally, alien America, would substantially be the specially distinguished friend. Such consequences would be so preposterous that it seems difficult to conceive how any body of loyal British colonists could have entertained for a moment the thought of such a customs-union as that of which we have heard and read; and it seems equally impossible for any rational man to believe that such an union and the British connexion could long co-exist.

There was a time, no doubt, and that—as Lord Carnarvon has recently reminded us—not very remote, when the colonies were administered from England in a manner which wronged and necessarily incensed them. All this is changed. The Colonial Office now, as a rule, interferes no more with the internal affairs of the self-governed colonies than is absolutely necessary to prevent the Queen's name and authority, and the honour of the mother-country, from being dragged through the dirt. At any rate, we have now the very minimum of interference compatible with the existence of the Imperial connexion. One would think that it could not reasonably be contended that, in a partnership of this nature, the mother-country is to be so entirely a sleeping partner that she is to have neither eyes nor voice. And yet, if we read the deliverances of some colonial statesmen, we may see that this is the situation proposed by them for the mother-country.

Those colonists, then, who desire sincerely the continuance of the connexion, and who deprecate the colonies becoming a group of petty Republics, perhaps squabbling and fighting amongst each other after the fashion of the Spanish-American communities, will do well not only to consider this subject from their own point of view, but also to study it from the point of view of British statesmen, and of the British public. We may feel assured that many thousands of thinking and influential people in England regard this question in the spirit expressed by an outspoken writer in the *Spectator* of the 5th October, 1878. Commenting on Mr. Lowe's recent article on Imperialism, he says, "A great England, however, is only possible in the future, as it is in the present, and has been in the past, through the insistence of the constituencies that a policy advocated as necessary for the Dependencies should be proved, first, not to be fatal to the mother-country; that the interests of Great Britain should not be merged in the interests of the British Empire. Dependencies whose interests cannot stand this *test* had better be cut adrift. We know of none, except Cyprus, if that be one, which could not stand it." Here have the colonies—more especially the self-governed colonies—received at once from a thoughtful writer a compliment, adroitly accompanied by a warning which all the parties concerned can digest at their leisure.

APPENDIX.

PRACTICAL HINTS TO INTENDING EMIGRANTS.

New South Wales, South Australia, Queensland, Tasmania, and New Zealand, carry emigrants to those colonies, on more or less liberal terms. South Australia and New Zealand grant entirely free passages. Queensland imports agricultural labourers and domestic servants free; all others pay assisted rates, viz. males under forty years of age, 4*l.*; above forty, 6*l.* Females under forty, 2*l.*; above forty, 6*l.* The colony of New South Wales does not bear the whole cost, but very liberally assists the emigrant by providing the balance of the passage-money beyond the sum of 2*l.*, which latter sum is required to be paid by each emigrant, male or female. The terms on which Tasmania is importing emigrants are set forth fully at pages 134 and 135 of this book.

Victoria is not at present granting assisted emigration in any shape.

Emigrants for Queensland embark at Gravesend: and those for New South Wales and South Australia at Plymouth. Scotch emigrants for New Zealand or other colonies embark at Glasgow. At Plymouth is an excellent and well-managed Emigration Depôt under the control of Mr. Watson. This establishment is supported by the colonies, and no charge is made on the emigrant for a day or two of board and lodging, immediately before the sailing of a ship.

Further information respecting these colonies can be obtained at the offices of their respective Agents-General, whose names and official addresses are as follow:—

New South Wales.—William Forster, Esq., 3, Westminster Chambers, S.W.

South Australia.—Sir Arthur Blyth, K.C.M.G., 8, Victoria Chambers, Victoria Street, S.W.

Queensland.—Arthur Macalister, Esq., C.M.G., 32, Charing Cross, Westminster.

New Zealand.—Sir Julius Vogel, K.C.M.G., 7, Westminster Chambers, S.W.

Victoria.—Sir Archibald Michie, Q.C., K.C.M.G., 8, Victoria Chambers, Victoria Street, S.W.

Tasmania.—Office, "The Emigrants and Colonists Aid Corporation, Limited," 25, Queen Anne's Gate, Westminster.

2. For those paying their own passage-moneys, well-appointed vessels, for one or another of the above colonies, are sailing from London, or Liverpool, or Glasgow, or from some other port of the United Kingdom, almost daily. The cost of the passage-money varies from 18*l.* the third class, up to 60*l.* or 70*l.* the first class. The provisions and accommodation of the third class are excellent, and are under government inspection; the charge is of course less for children.

3. By way of the Suez Canal, you can reach Australia in from forty to forty-four days. This, of course, is a route which can only be commanded by the wealthier classes. By way of the Cape of Good Hope, Australia is reached by steamer in from sixty to seventy days, and in sailing vessels in from eighty days (a short passage) to a hundred and twenty days (which is an unusually long one). The extra number of days consumed in getting to Melbourne, Sydney, or New Zealand, beyond the time it takes to get to New York, or Canada, probably determine some emigrants in favour of the latter countries. But fifty or sixty days more or less at sea, and on a voyage through generally calm latitudes, should not count for much in an operation which is supposed to embrace the emigrant's scheme of life.

4. Many an emigrant, if he or she have good sense, may find much advantage in the voyage, which I have heard some men describe (according to their experience) as an education in itself. It affords plenty of time for reading and profitable study; and abundant means for studying character.

5. Beware of too rapidly or carelessly contracting intimacies at sea, which may prove embarrassing on shore.

6. Avoid cards, bets, drink, and the little squabbles and cabals which frequently spring up among the more idle, frivolous, and foolish of your fellow-passengers.

7. If you have any money, keep the knowledge of the fact to yourself, if you can; if you cannot, why then beware of passengers who

particularly affect your company. Be not over-communicative with strangers about either your opinions or affairs.

"Neither a borrower nor a lender be:
For loan oft loses both itself and friend;
And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry."

Ponder over and over again the last line, and never forget it at sea or on shore.

8. Remember that the largest ship is a sort of little Republic, of which the Captain is the President, and Chief Magistrate. In the course of a voyage, he, his officers, and the doctor, have many opportunities of observing and learning the disposition and character, as well as the capacity and moral standing (so to speak), of every one in the ship, from the highest to the lowest. Character, therefore, may be either gained or lost at sea. An emigrant who can take on shore with him every one's good word, lands a larger capitalist than he is aware of, though of the world's goods he may have only the clothes he stands upright in. Men have frequently stepped at once into a good position in the colony on the mere strength of their ship character.

If you are solely dependent on your own exertions, be not over-particular as to what sort of service you accept, so long as it is an honest one, and you feel capable of undertaking it. What is called "a handy man" (in the colony) never need be long out of employment. As a few amongst many instances, I have known a Coventry ribbon-weaver turn into a good gardener; a sailor become a first-rate stage-coachman, steering a four-in-hand in bush roads as if he had been bred to the work. I once knew a very fine old fellow, an ex-colonel of the British army, who got a good living (until he obtained something better), by rowing a boat in Hobson's Bay. He gloried in his independence; and all who knew him took an interest in him, and at last translated him to something more consistent with his rank in life. Many years ago, a clever attorney brought all his little means to the colony, in the shape of china and glass; commodities of which there was a glut in the market when he arrived. To avoid a heavy loss by selling wholesale, he (with laudable moral courage), rented a little place, and sold off his stock retail, and so, not only escaped a loss, but came out with a profit. He became afterwards rich, and respected in his own profession. The wonderful facility with which able-bodied people of all trades and callings take to gold-mining, has been already shown in these pages.

PRODUCTION.

An account of the various changes which have taken place in the mode of disposing of the Crown lands of this colony was given in the *Victorian Year-Book*, 1874.[1] No alteration has been made in the system since the publication of that work.

The Land Act now in force is that of 1869 (33 Vict. No. 360). Under this Statute an extent of land not exceeding 320 acres is allowed to be selected by one person. The selection is held under licence for three years, within which period the licensee must reside on his selection at least two years and a half, must enclose it, cultivate 1 acre out of every 10 acres, and generally effect improvements to the value of 20*s.* per acre. The rent payable during this period is 2*s.* per acre per annum, which is credited to the selector as part payment of the principal. At the expiration of the three years' licence, the selector, if he obtain a certificate from the Board of Land and Works that he has complied with these conditions, may either purchase his holding by paying the balance of 14*s.* per acre, or may convert his licence into a lease extending over seven years, at an annual rental of 2*s.* per acre, which is also credited to the selector as part payment of the fee-simple. On the expiry of this lease the land becomes the freehold of the selector. The Statute also contains provision for the sale of Crown lands by auction at an upset price of 1*l.* per acre, or such higher sum as the Governor may direct, the whole amount to be so sold in any one year not to exceed 200,000 acres.

The land alienated from the Crown in fee-simple during 1876 amounted to 476,584 acres. Of this extent, 476,038 acres were sold, and 546 acres were granted without purchase.

Of the area sold, 150,626 acres, or nearly a third, was disposed of by auction. Nearly the whole of the remainder was in the first instance selected under the system of deferred payments.

The extent of Crown lands sold from the first settlement of the colony to the end of 1876 was 10,829,988 acres, and the extent granted without purchase was 3,791 acres. The total extent alienated was thus 10,827,779 acres.

The selected lands of which the fee-simple had not passed to the purchaser up to the end of the year amounted to 7,213,148 acres. Of this area it is certain that at least 750,000 acres had been forfeited for

[1] See page 271, post.

non-fulfilment of conditions. The remainder, representing the area in process of alienation under deferred payments, amounted to 6,463,148 acres, the whole of which, should the legal conditions be duly complied with, will pass away from the crown in the course of a few years.

According to the latest estimate, the total area of the colony is 56,446,720 acres; and if from this be deducted the sum of the lands granted, sold, and selected, amounting to 17,290,927 acres, it will follow that the residue, representing the Crown lands neither alienated nor in process of alienation, amounted at the end of 1876 to 39,155,793 acres.

The whole of this residue, however, is not available for selection, for it embraces lands occupied by roads, the unsold portions of the sites of towns, the State forests, auriferous, pastoral, and timber reserves, and land which is at present useless, owing to its mountainous character or to its being covered with mallee scrub, lakes, or lagoons. Deducting these lands from the extent unalienated and unselected, already stated to have been 39,155,793 acres, it will be found that the area open for selection is narrowed to 12,994,820 acres. This will be at once seen by the following table, which shows the condition of the public estate at the end of 1876 :—

PUBLIC ESTATE OF VICTORIA ON 31ST DECEMBER 1876.

Condition of Land.	Number of Acres.
Land alienated in fee-simple	10,827,779
Land in process of alienation under deferred payments	6,463,148
Roads in connexion with the above	902,051
Unsold land included in town reserves	242,922
Reserves in connexion with pastoral occupation (about)	350,000
Auriferous lands (about)	1,060,000
State forests, not included in unavailable mountain ranges	223,300
Timber reserves	382,700
Mallee scrub, unavailable mountain ranges, lakes, lagoons, &c. (about)	23,000,000
Area available for selection at end of 1876	12,994,820
Total area of Victoria	56,446,720

Omitting the 23,000,000 acres covered by mallee scrub, unavail-

able mountain ranges, lakes, lagoons, &c., the remainder of the colony amounting to 33,446,720 acres, or about 59 per cent. of the total area, may be said to be suitable for occupation. Of this extent, at the end of 1876, 17,290,927 acres, or 52 per cent., were already alienated or in process of alienation; 3,160,973 acres, or 9 per cent., were occupied by reserves; and 12,994,820 acres, or 39 per cent., were available for selection.

The difference between the extent available for selection at the end of 1875 and at the end of 1876 was 942,133 acres. The extent so available was equal at the former period to 25 per cent., and at the latter period to 23 per cent. of the whole area of the colony.

The amount realized for Crown Lands sold in 1876 was 584,913*l.*, or at the rate of 1*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.* per acre. Of this sum, only 376,864*l.* was received during the year, the remainder having been paid in former years as rents and licence-fees. The proportion sold by auction realized 255,990*l.*, or an average of 1*l.* 14*s.* per acre; and the proportion sold otherwise than at auction realized 328,922*l.*, or an average of 1*l.* 0*s.* 2¼*d.* per acre.

From the period of the first settlement of the colony to the end of 1876 the amount realized by the sale of Crown lands was 18,001,112*l.*, or at the rate of 1*l.* 13*s.* 3¼*d.* per acre.

The squatting runs in 1876 numbered 822, or 43 less than in 1875. The area of Crown lands embraced in runs amounted in 1876 to 21,906,540 acres, or 1,061,099 acres less than in 1875.

The average size of squatting runs was 26,552 acres in 1875, and 26,650 acres in 1876. This is exclusive of any purchased land attached thereto.

The number of runs with purchased land attached was 448 in 1875, and 493 in 1876. The land so attached was 1,730,113 acres in the former, and 1,685,811 acres in the latter year. In explanation of the falling off in the area of purchased land held in connexion with runs, it is to be observed that, as soon as the Crown lands attached to a run are altogether purchased, it drops out of the list of runs, and is considered as a farm. The term "run" is applied to such holdings only as are subject to pastoral licences.

The extent of purchased land attached to runs was in the proportion of 2000 acres to each run in 1875, and of 2051 acres to each run in 1876; or in the proportion of 3862 acres in 1875, and of 3419 acres in 1876, to each run having purchased land held in connexion therewith.

The rent paid for runs is fixed in accordance with the grazing capabilities of the land. For the five years ended with 1875 it was charged at the rate of 4*s.* yearly for each head of cattle or horses, or 8*d.* for each sheep, the run was estimated to be able to depasture; but by the Land Act 1875 (39 Vict. No. 515) the rate was changed to 5*s.* for cattle or horses and 1*s.* for sheep, the change to take effect from the 31st December, 1875. In 1875 the amount of rent received was 139,304*l.*, or 1·456*d.* (nearly 3½*d.*) per acre, and in 1876 the amount of rent received was 152,644*l.*, or 1·672*d.* (nearly 1¾*d.*) per acre.

The whole revenue from the sale and occupation of Crown lands amounted to 1,147,857*l.* in 1876. The receipts from auction sales were less by 35,240*l.* than in 1875; yet the total receipts showed an improvement of 141,028*l.* The land revenue may be thus divided:—

LAND REVENUE, 1876.

Temporary occupation	£194,535
Alienation in fee-simple and progressive . .	834,663
Penalties, fees, and interest	118,659
Total	£1,147,857

The agricultural statistics of Victoria are collected by the municipal bodies, who are required each year to furnish the Government Statist, on or before the 31st March, such agricultural and other statistics relating to their districts on such forms and in such manner as the Governor in Council may direct. All persons are required to give correct information to the best of their knowledge and belief, and should they fail to do so, they render themselves liable to a penalty not exceeding 10*l.* Collectors divulging or making extracts from the information they receive, except under the special direction or authority of the Government Statist, also render themselves liable to a penalty of 10*l.*

The agricultural statistics to which reference will now be made are those for the year ended 31st March, 1877. Tables embodying the general results of these statistics were sent for publication in the *Government Gazette* on the 10th May last, and these, with additional tables, have since been printed and laid before Parliament, in Part V. of the Statistical Register.

The holdings which the collectors are required to visit are all blocks of alienated land above one acre in extent, which are occupied for agricultural or pastoral purposes. Each distinct occupation is con-

sidered to be a holding, without reference to its proprietorship, and each of several holdings in different localities owned by one person is necessarily reckoned as a distinct holding.

The extent of land in occupation of which a return is made is always less than the whole area alienated. The collectors are not required to take account of holdings of a smaller extent than one acre, nor of gardens or grounds attached to residences which are kept merely for ornament and pleasure, nor of any lands which are unoccupied, or which are used for other purposes than agriculture or the keeping of stock. It is, moreover, possible that in a few instances the collectors may not be aware of the existence of, and consequently may not penetrate to, some isolated blocks of purchased land held in connexion with squatting stations at a distance from agricultural districts.

Returns of the small or medium-sized holdings are obtained without much trouble, but difficulty is often experienced in getting particulars respecting the large estates, especially in regard to their size. Sometimes an overseer is in charge who does not know even the gross area, much less the extent of the portions which are let off as farms, and which, being returned in the name of the tenant, should be subtracted from the total. Not unfrequently the owner himself professes to be unable to furnish the collectors with correct information.

A statement of the number of holdings, and of the extent of land occupied, enclosed, and cultivated in the year under review, and the previous one, will be found in the following table. All the items show increase:—

HOLDINGS AND LAND OCCUPIED, ENCLOSED, AND CULTIVATED, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Holdings larger than 1 acre.	Acres Occupied.	Acres Enclosed.	Acres under Tillage.
1876 .	40,852	13,084,233	12,105,197	1,126,831
1877 .	43,057	13,855,003	12,702,051	1,231,105
Increase .	2,205	770,770	596,854	104,274

During the decenniad ended with the year under review the holdings, the land occupied, and that enclosed have nearly doubled, and the land under cultivation has more than doubled. The following are the figures:—

INCREASE IN 1877 AS COMPARED WITH 1867.

Holdings	20,359
Acres occupied	6,481,724
„ enclosed	6,192,861
„ cultivated	638,190

The estimated population of Victoria at the end of 1876 was 840,300, and the land under tillage, as returned three months later, being 1,231,105 acres, the average area cultivated to each person was 1·47 acre, as against 1·37 acre in the previous year.

In proportion to population, South Australia places much more land under cultivation, and New South Wales and Queensland much less, than any other colonies of the group. The following table shows the extent of land per head so placed in each Australasian colony during the three seasons ended with that of 1875-6, also the mean of the three seasons. The colonies are placed in order, the colony with the largest amount of cultivation per head being placed first, and that with the least last:—

CULTIVATION PER HEAD IN AUSTRALASIAN COLONIES, 1874 TO 1876.

Colony.	Acres under Tillage per Head of Population.			
	1873-4.	1874-5.	1875-6.	Mean of Three Years.
South Australia	6·18	6·50	6·86	6·51
Tasmania	1·61	3·13	3·21	2·65
Western Australia.	2·01	1·73	1·78	1·84
New Zealand	1·27	1·61	1·62	1·50
Victoria	1·22	1·25	1·37	1·28
New South Wales.	·82	·80	·74	·79
Queensland	·43	·39	·43	·42

GROSS PRODUCE OF PRINCIPAL CROPS, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Wheat.	Oats.	Barley.	Potatoes.	Hay.
	bushels.	bushels.	bushels.	tons.	tons.
1876	4,978,914	2,719,795	700,665	124,377	206,613
1877	5.279,730	2,294,225	530,323	134,082	180,560
Increase	300,816	..	..	9,705	..
Decrease	..	425,570	170,342	..	26,053

In the following table the average yield of wheat, oats, potatoes, and hay in Victoria during the five years ended with 1876, is placed side by side with the average of the same crops in the other Australasian colonies during as many of those years as the information is available for. The only one of the colonies for which the particulars are altogether wanting is Queensland. That colony publishes no return of the produce of any crop except wheat, and that only for certain selected districts, the average of which does not afford reliable data for ascertaining the average produce of wheat over the colony taken as a whole :—

AVERAGE PRODUCE OF PRINCIPAL CROPS IN AUSTRALASIAN COLONIES, 1872 TO 1876.

Name of Colony	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	Mean.
WHEAT: BUSHELS PER ACRE.						
Victoria . . .	13·45	16·51	13·58	14·57	15·49	14·72
New South Wales .	14·48	16·32	13·43	12·87	14·66	14·35
South Australia .	5·73	11·50	7·87	11·75	11·95	9·76
Western Australia .	..	6·02	13·44	12·00	11·00	10·62
Tasmania . .	13·39	18·62	16·17	18·51	16·38	16·61
New Zealand . .	22·52	24·19	25·61	28·15	31·54	26·40
OATS: BUSHELS PER ACRE.						
Victoria . . .	18·76	19·55	15·69	18·46	21·92	18·88
New South Wales .	20·36	19·94	18·71	16·31	18·72	18·81
South Australia .	10·85	16·39	10·61	14·61	16 69	13·83
Western Australia .	..	13·24	19·22	16·00	15·00	15·87
Tasmania . .	20·03	25·85	20·98	26·82	25·40	23·82
New Zealand . .	26·78	27·00	29·81	35·22	39·34	31·63
POTATOES: TONS PER ACRE.						
Victoria . . .	3·22	3·45	2·86	3·53	3·37	3·29
New South Wales .	3·03	2·98	2·98	2·83	2·98	2·96
South Australia .	3·48	3·28	3·41	3·72	4·52	3·68
Western Australia .	..	2·34	2·67	3·00	3·00	2·75
Tasmania . .	2·77	3·92	3·16	3·75	3·54	3·43
New Zealand . .	3·53	4·92	4·46	5·24	4·89	4·61

AVERAGE PRODUCE OF PRINCIPAL CROPS IN AUSTRALASIAN COLONIES, 1872 TO 1876 (*continued*).

Name of Colony.	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	Mean.
HAY: TONS PER ACRE.						
Victoria . . .	1·40	1·32	1·27	1·32	1·33	1·33
New South Wales .	1·50	1·51	1·54	1·37	1·15	1·43
South Australia .	1·00	1·21	1·02	1·26	1·21	1·14
Western Australia .	..	1·51	2·00	1·50	1·00	1·50
Tasmania . .	·98	1·39	1·08	1·35	1·42	1·24
New Zealand . .	1·16	1·25	1·43	·84	1·46	1·23

NOTE.—All the calculations in this table were made in the office of the Government Statist, Melbourne.

The following table shows the land under gardens and orchards in 1876 and 1877. No return is made of the nature of the crops grown or the quantity of produce raised. The increase in area during the year amounted to nearly 900 acres :—

LAND UNDER GARDENS AND ORCHARDS, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Gardens.	Orchards.	Total.
	acres.	acres.	acres.
1876	11,816	5,945	17,761
1877	12,241	6,400	18,641
Increase . .	425	455	880

Land in fallow is included in the area under tillage. The quantity in this condition amounted in 1877 to 84,159 acres, or 12,974 acres less than in the previous year.

The following table shows the number of holdings of various sizes, and the extent of occupied and cultivated land embraced therein according to the returns of the present year. It must be borne in mind that all the land alienated from the Crown is not included, but only that embraced in holdings above a certain minimum size, and showing sufficient evidence of occupation for agricultural or pastoral purposes to cause it to come under the notice of the collectors of agricultural statistics :—

CLASSIFICATION OF HOLDINGS AS TO SIZE, 1876–7.

Size of Holdings.	Number of Holdings.	Extent of Sold or Selected Land in Occupation.	Extent of Land under Tillage.
		acres.	acres.
1 acre to 4 acres . .	1,673	4,874	2,836
5 acres 14 „ . .	3,536	31,138	13,981
15 „ 29 „ . .	3,897	80,309	25,333
30 „ 49 „ . .	3,284	125,895	34,023
50 „ 99 „ . .	5,998	432,307	93,693
100 „ 199 „ . .	8,103	1,144,521	204,474
200 „ 320 „ . .	11,664	3,315,835	415,368
321 „ 400 „ . .	1,132	407,982	62,586
401 „ 500 „ . .	920	414,704	60,201
501 „ 600 „ . .	590	325,006	41,111
601 „ 700 „ . .	503	325,065	32,464
701 „ 800 „ . .	226	169,558	19,361
801 „ 900 „ . .	190	161,372	16,467
901 „ 1,000 „ . .	175	166,975	14,025
1,001 „ 1,500 „ . .	381	468,607	36,055
1,501 „ 2,000 „ . .	170	298,424	20,416
2,001 „ 3,000 „ . .	148	367,520	17,672
3,001 „ 4,000 „ . .	84	294,106	12,769
4,001 „ 5,000 „ . .	56	256,607	10,110
5,001 „ 7,500 „ . .	74	456,714	15,830
7,501 „ 10,000 „ . .	49	426,266	5,650
10,001 „ 15,000 „ . .	76	947,101	27,046
15,001 „ 20,000 „ . .	50	870,023	6,285
20,001 „ 30,000 „ . .	47	1,119,836	27,974
30,001 „ 40,000 „ . .	21	712,138	12,841
40,001 „ and upwards .	10	532,120	2,534
Total . .	43,057	13,855,003	1,231,105

Under the present Land Act the maximum extent allowed to be selected by one individual is 320 acres. It appears, therefore, that the policy of the State of late years has been to discourage the aggrandizement of estates beyond this limit. It will be interesting to discover what proportion of the total number of holdings, the total quantity of occupied land, and the total quantity of cultivated land, is on blocks which do and do not exceed it. This may be done by analyzing the above table, whereby it will be found that—

(*a.*) Out of every 100 holders, 11, on the average, occupied lots exceeding, and 89 not exceeding, 320 acres in extent.

(*b.*) Out of every 100 acres in occupation, 63, on the average, formed portion of lots exceeding, and 37 of lots not exceeding, 320 acres in extent.

(*c.*) Out of every 100 acres cultivated, 36, on the average, were on lots exceeding, and 64 on lots not exceeding, 320 acres in extent.

(*d.*) Whilst holders of upwards of 320 acres cultivated, on the average, only 5 per cent. of their holdings, holders of 320 acres and under cultivated, on the average, 15½ per cent. of theirs.

It may further be ascertained from the same table that 46 per cent. of the holdings, 32 per cent. of the occupied land, and 50 per cent. of the cultivated land, are on lots from 100 to 320 acres; also that, whilst holders of less than 100 acres cultivated, on the average, 25 per cent. of their holdings, holders of from 100 to 320 acres cultivated, on the average, only 14 per cent. of theirs. It has been already stated, that holders of upwards of 320 acres cultivated no more, on the average, than 5 per cent. of their holdings.

VALUE OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE, 1876–7.

Name of Crop.	Gross Produce and Price.					Estimated Value.		
				£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Wheat	5,279,730	bushels	@	0	5	10	1,539,921	5	0
Oats	2,294,225	„	@	0	3	7	411,048	12	11
Barley	530,323	„	@	0	3	10	101,645	4	10
Other cereals	415.043	„	@	0	4	8	96,843	7	4
Potatoes	134,082	tons	@	5	14	0	764,267	8	0
Other green crops	24,164	„	@	5	0	0	120,820	0	0
Hay	180,560	„	@	4	13	0	839,604	0	0
Green forage	362,554	acres	@	3	0	0	1,087,662	0	0
Tobacco	14,413	cwt.	@	2	16	0	40,366	8	0
Grapes, not made into wine	85,111	„	@	1	0	0	85,111	0	0
Wine	481.588	gallons	@	0	4	0	96,317	12	0
Brandy	3,725	„	@	0	10	0	1,862	10	0
Other crops	3,192	acres	@	5	0	0	15,960	0	0
Garden and orchard produce.	18,641	„	@	20	0	0	372,820	0	0
	Total						5,574,239	8	1

The standard weight of crops in Victoria is reckoned to be 60 lbs. to the bushel for wheat and maize, 40 lbs. for oats, and 50 lbs. for barley. The actual weight, however, differs in different districts. Thus, wheat, during the past year, ranged from 58 lbs. to 64 lbs.; oats, from 35 lbs. to 44 lbs; barley, from 45 lbs. to 56 lbs.; and maize, from 50 lbs. to 60 lbs. The average weight per bushel of these crops in all the districts during the past two years was as follows:—

SPECIFIC WEIGHT OF CROPS, 1876 AND 1877.

Average Weight per Bushel of—	1875-6.	1876-7.
	lbs.	lbs.
Wheat	61	61
Oats	40	40
Barley	50	51
Maize	55	55

The live stock on farms and land not attached to squatting stations, and the live stock on squatting stations, were returned as follow for the last two years. An increase will be observed in the number of cattle and pigs, but a falling off in the number of sheep. On farms all the stock show increase except horses, but on stations all the stock fell off in numbers except cattle, and of these a reduction took place in the number used for dairying purposes. The live stock on farms is returned by the collectors of agricultural statistics, who are instructed to supplement the information they obtain at the holdings they visit with estimates of the stock running on commons, of that kept by persons having allotments of less than an acre in extent, of that stalled and stabled in towns and villages, and of that belonging to road carters traversing their districts. For some of the larger towns the collectors have been unable to furnish estimates, and for these the census figures have been taken. The return of stock on stations has been compiled, as far as possible, from estimates furnished by the squatters in reply to inquiries made by the Government Statist. In a considerable number of instances, however, these inquiries have not been responded to, and in such cases it has been necessary to supply the particulars from the returns of former years. Every endeavour is made to give as true a statement as possible of the numbers of all the stock in the colony; but it is necessary to point out that portion of the information is derived from estimates which can only be verified at a general census:—

LIVE STOCK ON FARMS AND ON STATIONS, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Horses.	Cattle.			Sheep.	Pigs.
		Milch Cows.	Exclusive of Milch Cows.	Total.		
ON FARMS AND LAND UNCONNECTED WITH STATIONS.						
1876 .	177,679	242,694	653,926	896,620	6,426,698	136,844
1877 .	177,483	264,648	694,498	959,146	6,444,786	171,729
Increase	..	21,954	40,572	62,526	18,088	34,885
Decrease	196	..	..	..	..	..
ON STATIONS.						
1876 .	18,505	12,443	145,535	157,978	5,322,834	3,921
1877 .	17,285	12,424	156,695	169,119	4,834,107	3,849
Increase	..	..	11,160	11,141	..	..
Decrease	1,220	19	..	..	488,727	72
TOTAL LIVE STOCK.						
1876 .	196,184	255,137	799,461	1,054,598	11,749,532	140,765
1877 .	194,768	277,072	851,193	1,128,265	11,278,893	175,578
Increase	..	21,935	51,732	73,667	..	34,813
Decrease	1,416	..	..	..	470,639	..

All holdings are set down as farms except those subject to a pastoral licence. Holdings of which any portion is subject to a pastoral licence are set down as stations. When the last portion of a run has been purchased or selected by the occupier or others, and the pastoral licence is consequently thereafter no longer in existence, the holding, which previously had been a "station," thenceforth becomes a "farm," and this notwithstanding that the area of the holding may not at all or only very slightly have been reduced. In the more settled districts a gradual process of removal of holdings from the list of stations to that of farms has, for some time since, been going on.

The live stock slaughtered in 1876, and the purposes to which the

carcasses were appropriated, were returned as follow by the local bodies. It is probable that the returns do not in every case include the animals slaughtered by private persons and on farms and stations, and, therefore, that more were really slaughtered than the figures show :—

LIVE STOCK SLAUGHTERED, 1876.

Description of Live Stock.	Numbers Slaughtered for—			
	The Butcher & Private use.	Preserving or Salting.	Boiling Down for Tallow.	Total Number.
Sheep and lambs . .	1,704,929	287,315	185,965	2,178,209
Cattle and calves . .	166,638	10,525	24,000	201,163
Pigs	53,855	13,818	2,700	70,373
Total . .	1,925,422	311,658	212,665	2,449,745

The following is an estimate of the value of pastoral produce raised on holdings of all descriptions in 1876–7 :—

VALUE OF PASTORAL PRODUCE, 1876–7.

Nature of Produce.	Value.
	£
Milk, butter, and cheese, from average number of milch cows kept, viz., 277,072, @ 10*l.*	2,770,720
Estimated net numbers of stock slaughtered in 1876 :—	
Cattle, 199,656, @ 11*l.*	2,196,216
Sheep, 745,064, @ 12*s.*	447,038
Pigs, 101,081, @ 2*l.* 10*s.*	252,702
Estimated value of produce of horse stock, 9738, @ 8*l.*	77,904
Excess of exports over imports of wool, Customs value .	4,234,570
Estimated value of wool used in the colony for manufacturing purposes, 1,205,595 lbs., @ 1*s.* 6*d.* . .	90,420
Total . . .	10,069,570

NOTE.—The gross numbers of live stock slaughtered in the year may be estimated as follow: — Cattle, 205,000; sheep, 2,220,000; pigs, 71,500. The "net numbers" slaughtered are made up by adding to these figures those showing the increase of stock appearing in the returns of 1876 as compared with those of 1875, viz. cattle, 73,667;

pigs, 34,813: also those showing the live stock exported in 1876, viz. cattle, 2133; sheep, 10,889; pigs, 3; and deducting from the sum of these numbers the figures showing the decrease of stock appearing in the returns of 1876 as compared with those of 1875, viz. sheep, 470,639: also the figures showing the stock imported in 1876, viz. cattle, 81,144; sheep, 1,015,186; pigs, 5235. The produce of horse stock has been arbitrarily estimated at 5 per cent. upon the total number of horses in the colony. The quantity of wool manufactured in Victoria has been ascertained from the various woollen mills. No estimate has been made of the value of meat, tallow, lard, hides, skins, horns, hoofs, bones, &c., as this is supposed to be included in the value of stock slaughtered.

The returns show an increase in the use of steam machinery in the furtherance of both agricultural and pastoral pursuits during the year under review as compared with the previous one. The following are the figures:—

STEAM ENGINES ON FARMS AND STATIONS, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Steam Engines.					
	On Farms.		On Stations.		Total.	
	Number.	Horse-power.	Number.	Horse-power.	Number.	Horse-power.
1876 .	253	2,081	23	201	276	2,282
1877 .	315	2,332	27	237	342	2,569
Increase .	62	251	4	36	66	287

An increase appears in the value of agricultural implements and machines on farms, but a falling off in the value of those on stations.

MACHINE LABOUR, 1876 AND 1877.

Average Rates paid for—	1875-6.			1876-7.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Machine reaping, per acre . . .	0	4	9	0	6	3
„ mowing „ . . .	0	4	5	0	5	1
„ threshing, per 100 bushels .	1	3	3	1	3	6

A decrease of five took place in the number of flour-mills in operation during 1877 as compared with those in 1876; the hands employed, however, during the two years, were nearly identical in numbers. A falling off took place in the quantity of wheat operated upon, but this, apparently, caused no diminution in the quantity of flour produced, which, on the contrary, showed a small increase. A slight falling off, according to the returns, took place in the value of machinery and lands, but a small increase in the value of buildings. The following are the figures for the two years:—

FLOUR-MILLS, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Mills.	Mills employing—		Amount of Horse-power.	Number of Pairs of Stones.	Number of Hands employed.
		Steam-power.	Water-power.			
1876 . .	157	145	12	2,848	476	704
1877 . .	152	138	13	2,811	458	707
Increase . .	..	..	1	..	..	3
Decrease . .	5	7	..	37	18	..

Year ended 31st March.	Bushels of Grain operated upon.		Tons of Flour made.	Tons of Meal made.	Approximate Total Value of—		
	Wheat.	Other.			Machinery and Plant.	Lands.[1]	Buildings.
					£	£	£
1876 .	5,287,596	271,682	114,727	596	217,335	55,400	201,520
1877 .	5,069,850	309,839	117,473	3,724	213,723	54,616	201,815
Increase	..	38,157	2,746	3,128	..	..	295
Decrease	217,746	..	..	..	3612	784	..

One brewery less was returned in 1877 than in 1876, but all the other items relating to breweries show increase. The following is a comparative return of the results in the two years:—

[1] Four mills in 1876, and five in 1877, were upon Crown lands. In these cases no estimate of the value of the land is given.

BREWERIES, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Breweries.	Materials used.			Number of Hands employed.	Number of Horses employed.
		Sugar.	Malt.	Hops.		
		lbs.	bushels.	lbs.		
1876 .	103	9,356,144	600,035	871,051	882	617
1877 .	102	10,777,453	628,963	945,529	902	633
Increase	..	1,421,309	28,928	74,478	20	16
Decrease	1	..	..	..	..	..

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Drays and Waggons employed.	Gallons of Beer made.	Approximate Total Value of—		
			Machinery and Plant.	Lands.[2]	Buildings.
			£	£	£
1876 . .	332	12,666,265	139,950	61,892	196,872
1877 . .	356	14,236,359	152,995	68,839	203,832
Increase . .	24	1,570,094	13,045	6,947	6,960

Although the number of brickyards and potteries returned was the same in 1876 and in 1877, three more of these establishments used steam-power in the latter than in the former year. A slight increase appears in the number and value of bricks made, but the value of pottery made fell off by more than a fifth. A falling off in the manufacture of pottery was also noticed last year. The value of machinery and plant was somewhat higher, and that of lands and buildings somewhat lower in the year under review than in the previous one. The following is an abstract of the returns:—

[2] Six of the breweries in 1876, and five in 1877, were upon Crown lands. In these cases no estimate of the value of the land is given.

BRICKYARDS AND POTTERIES, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Brick-yards and Potteries.	Number of Machines in use.		Brickyards, &c., employing—			Amount of Horse-power employed.	Number of Hands employed.
		For tempering or crushing Clay.	For making Bricks or Pottery.	Steam-power.	Horse-power.	Manual Labour.		
1876 .	241	169	87	13	101	127	336	1,083
1877 .	241	164	111	16	97	128	336	1,194
Increase	..	..	24	3	..	1	..	111
Decrease	..	5	..	..	4	..	..	..

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Bricks made.	Approximate Total Value of—				
		Bricks made.	Pottery made.	Machinery and Plant.	Lands.[3]	Buildings.
		£	£	£	£	£
1876 .	73,853,000	148,188	21,905	42,016	49,782	50,210
1877 .	75,081,000	152,139	17,312	45,110	47,959	49,260
Increase .	1,228,000	3,951	..	3,094	..	..
Decrease .	..	..	4,593	..	1,823	950

An increase of five in the total number of tanneries, and of nine in the number employing steam-power, took place during the year. With a trifling exception, all the other items show increase. This may be observed by means of the following table:—

TANNERIES, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended March 31st.	Number of Tanneries.	Tanneries employing—			Amount of Horse-power employed.	Number of Hands employed.	Number of Pits.
		Steam-power.	Horse-power.	Manual Labour.			
1876 . .	91	29	46	12	398	965	3,058
1877 . .	96	38	36	22	1140	432	3,201
Increase .	5	9	..	10	34	175	143
Decrease .	..	..	10	..	..	..	..

[3] Fifty-five of the brickyards in 1876, and fifty-six in 1877, were

TANNERIES, 1876 AND 1877 (*continued*).

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Hides Tanned.	Number of Skins Tanned.	Approximate Total Value of—			
			Leather produced.	Machinery and Plant.	Lands.[4]	Buildings.
			£	£	£	£
1876 . .	316,394	514,832	617,873	64,842	28,853	73,150
1877 . .	323,693	1,310,229	680,563	66,967	31,920	86,454
Increase .	7,299	795,397	62,690	2,125	3,067	13,304

Two more woollen mills appear in the returns for 1877 than in those for 1876. A trifling falling off took place in the number of blankets made, but the total value of the fabrics manufactured increased 5 per cent. With this exception, and that of the value of lands, all the items show increase. The following are the returns of the two years :—

WOOLLEN MILLS, 1876 AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Woollen Mills.	Steam Engines used—		Quantity of Wool used.	Goods Manufactured: Quantity of—		
		Number.	Horse-power.		Tweed, Cloth, Flannel, &c.	Blankets.	Shawls.
				lbs.	yards	number.	number.
1876 .	6	6	368	..	644,714	2,973	1,776
1877 .	8	10	471	1,205,595	719,887	2,816	2,941
Increase.	2	4	103	..	75,173	..	1,165
Decrease.	..	..	..	..	..	157	..

upon Crown lands. In these cases no estimate of the value of the land is given.

[4] Four of the tanneries in 1876, and three in 1877, were upon Crown lands. In these cases no estimate of the value of the land is given.

WOOLLEN MILLS, 1876 AND 1877 (*continued*).

Year ended 31st March.	Hands employed.		Approximate Total Value of—			
	Males.	Females.	Goods Manufactured.	Machinery and Plant.	Lands.	Buildings.
			£	£	£	£
1876 . .	357	254	140,939	104,059	5,976	51,565
1877 . .	428	282	148,182	127,203	4,182	59,293
Increase . .	71	28	7,243	23,144	..	7,728
Decrease . .	..	..	..	..	1,794	..

The manufactories and works, exclusive of those of which mention has already been made—viz., flour mills, breweries, brickyards, potteries, tanneries, and woollen mills—increased from 1643 in 1876 to 1703 in 1877. The steam engines used in these works increased by eleven, the hands employed by 1249, and the capital invested, so far as it is represented by the stated value of machinery, plant, lands, and buildings, increased by 201,508*l*. Most of the establishments are of an extensive character, and over 40 per cent. of them, both in 1876 and 1877, used steam-power. The following is a comparison of the results of the two years :—

MANUFACTORIES, WORKS, ETC., 1876 AND 1877.

(Exclusive of Flour Mills, Breweries, Brickyards, Potteries, Tanneries, and Woollen Mills.

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Manufactories, Works, &c.	Manufactories, &c., employing—					Amount of Horse-power employed.
		Steam.	Water.	Wind.	Horse-power.	Manual Labour.	
1876 .	1,643	707	16	1	104	815	8,612
1877 .	1,703	718	13	4	95	873	8,949
Increase .	60	11	..	3	..	58	337
Decrease .	..	..	3	..	9	..	..

MANUFACTORIES, WORKS, ETC., 1876 AND 1877 (*continued*).

Year ended 31st March.	Number of Hands employed.		Approximate Total Value of—		
	Males.	Females.	Machinery and Plant.	Lands.[5]	Buildings.
			£	£	£
1876 . .	21,058	4,518	1,980,643	881,534	1,547,892
1877 . .	22,033	4,792	2,101,670	1,077,042	1,432,865
Increase .	975	274	121,027	195,508	..
Decrease .	..	..	..	..	115,027

NOTE.—It has hitherto been customary, wrongly, as I conceive, to include certain waterworks in the returns of manufactories. This year they are excluded from all the manufactory tables, not only from such portions of them as relate to the year under review, but also from such as refer to former years. A general table of waterworks will be found in pages 262, 263.

SUMMARY OF MANUFACTORIES, WORKS,[6] ETC., 1867, 1872, AND 1877.

Year ended 31st March.	Total Number of Establishments.	Number of Establishments using Steam.	Horse-power of Engines.[7]	Number of Hands employed.	Approximate Value of Lands, Buildings, Machinery and Plant.
					£
1867	982	419	70,72	11,330	1,747,702
1872	1,740	701	9,442	19,468	3,731,461
1877	2,302	918	12,771	31,478	6,025,745

The following table contains a list of the works for the storage and supply of water for domestic, mining, and irrigation purposes, situated in various parts of the colony; also a statement of the estimated capacity of each work, and its actual or estimated cost. Some of these

[5] 199 of the manufactories, &c., in 1876, and 203 in 1877, were upon Crown lands. In these cases no estimate of the value of the land is given.

[6] Works for the storing and supply of water are not included.

[7] It is possible that the numbers in this column may include the power of a few water and wind machines used in manufacturing, in addition to the power of the steam engines.

works have been completed, and others are in the course of construction. It was formerly the practice to include some of the waterworks with the manufactories, but it is now thought better to remove them from that portion of the statistics, and to embody them all in a special table. It will be observed that the storage capacity of these works is over twelve thousand million gallons, and their cost nearly two and three-quarter millions sterling:—

WATERWORKS IN VICTORIA.

Name of Town or District to be supplied.	Reservoir.		Actual or Estimated Cost.
	Where situated.	Storage Capacity.	
		gallons.	£
Melbourne and suburbs	Yan Yean	6,400,000,000	1,435,000
	Preston	15,000,000	
Castlemaine	Expedition Pass	128,000,000	80,130
Sandhurst	Spring Gully	149,000,000	224,939
	Crusoe Gully	320,000,000	
	Big Hill	68,000,000	
Coliban scheme (Castlemaine and Sandhurst districts)	Malmsbury	2,841,000,000	259,416
Geelong and suburbs	Stony Creek (Old)	157,000,000	195,594
	Stony Creek (New)	141,000,000	
	Lovely Banks	6,000,000	
Creswick	Bullarook	45,000,000	1,077
Tarnagulla	Tarnagulla	5,000,000	1,168
Inglewood (New)	Inglewood	13,000,000	1,610
Maryborough	Maryborough	8,100,000	1,065
Maldon	Maldon	8,591,504	2,102
Ararat	Oliver's Gully	19,615,554	1,731
	Langi-Giran	14,600,000	35,000
	Opossum Gully	24,621,547	1,831
Beechworth	Lake Kerford	60,000,000	10,000
Chiltern	BarrambogieSprings	..	5,000
Wangaratta	Tank at Railway Station	40,000	3,000
Rutherglen	Rutherglen	27,000,000	3,500
Beaufort	Service Reservoir	1,200,000	3,500
Ballarat	Three in Bungaree	212,960,000	300,000
Clunes	Newlyn	237,000,000	80,500
Blackwood	Lerderderg River	64,441,237	1,090
Buninyong	Buninyong	10,462,485	1,047
Ovens	Sandy Creek	70,000,000	2,835
Indigo	Suffolk Lead	1,701,562	437
Sandhurst	Grassy Flat (1)	56,860,375	4,003
	Grassy Flat (2)	26,769,369	1,755
Kilmore	Kilmore	14,466,000	845

WATERWORKS IN VICTORIA (*continued*).

Name of Town or District to be supplied.	Reservoir.		Actual or Estimated Cost.
	Where situated.	Storage Capacity.	
		gallons.	£
Myers Creek	Myers Creek	13,000,000	844
Echuca	Echuca (tank)	40,000	2,748
Dunolly	Dunolly	17,200,000	1,912
Inglewood (Old)	Inglewood	5,670,000	1,112
St. Arnaud	St. Arnaud	40,600,000	2,903
Redbank	Redbank	27,100,000	2,785
Lamplough	Lamplough	9,261,946	1,232
Amherst	Amherst	13,813,284	1,192
Wedderburn	Wedderburn	3,100,000	1,103
Castlemaine	Barker's Creek, Harcourt	611,500,000	34,500
Chewton	Commissioner's Gully	7,000,000	1,203
Daylesford	Wombat Creek	31,284,413	2,527
Fryerstown	Crocodile Gully	5,407,462	767
	Spring Gully	7,000,000	1,049
Stawell	Quartz Reefs (1)	9,725,627	1,089
	Pleasant Creek (2)	17,000,000	
	Pleasant Creek (3)	7,905,750	775
	Four Posts (4)	3,100,000	802
Moyston	Campbell's Reef	5,400,000	1,054
Beaufort	Beaufort	85,881,110	1,991
	Total	12,067,419,225	2,719,665

The quantity of gold raised in Victoria during any given year may be estimated in several ways; the following are the results for 1876 of four different methods of making the calculation:—

ESTIMATES OF GOLD YIELD, 1876.

	Estimated Quantity.		
	oz.	dwt.	gr.
1. Exported gold entered as the produce of Victoria, added to Victorian gold received at Melbourne Mint	234,224	2	0
2. Gross exports of gold, less gross imports, added to gross quantity of gold received at Melbourne Mint	930,273	10	19
3. Gold raised, according to estimates made by the Mining Registrars throughout the Country	963,760	0	0
4. Gold purchased, according to returns made by managers of banks and others	949,468	12	17

As the mining registrars live in the gold-producing districts, and, it may be presumed, have every opportunity of obtaining correct information, I propose to adopt their estimate. It will be observed that it gives a somewhat higher result than that obtained by any of the other methods.

This quantity, and its value at 4*l.* per oz., are compared in the following table with the quantity and assumed value of the gold estimated to have been raised in 1875 :—

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF GOLD RAISED IN 1875 AND 1876.

Year.	Gold raised in Victoria.	
	Estimated Quantity.	Estimated Value, at 4*l.* per oz.
	oz.	£
1875 . . .	1,095,787	4,383,148
1876 . . .	963,760	3,855,040
Decrease . . .	132,027	528,108

The following figures give an estimate of the quantity of gold raised in 1870 and each subsequent year. It will be seen that since 1871 the yield of gold has been steadily decreasing :—

ESTIMATED QUANTITY OF GOLD RAISED, 1870 TO 1876.

	oz.		oz.
1870 . . .	1,222,798	1874 . . .	1,155,972
1871 . . .	1,355,477	1875 . . .	1,095,787
1872 . . .	1,282,521	1876 . . .	963,760
1873 . . .	1,241,205		

Carrying on to the end of 1876 the calculations given in previous Year-Books, the following may be estimated as the total quantity and value of the gold raised in Victoria from the period of its first discovery in 1851 :—

ESTIMATED TOTAL QUANTITY AND VALUE OF GOLD RAISED IN VICTORIA, 1851 TO 1876.

Gold raised in Victoria.	Estimated Quantity.	Estimated Value, at 4*l.* per oz.
	£	£
Prior to 1876 . .	45,509,964	182,039,856
During 1876 . .	963,760	3,855,040
Total . .	46,473,724	185,894,896

The estimated value of gold raised in proportion to the number of miners at work was much less in 1876 than in 1875, or than in any other year since 1870. The following figures, which have been taken from the reports of the Secretary for Mines, express this proportion for each of the last seven years :—

VALUE OF GOLD PER MINER,[8] 1870 TO 1876.

	£	*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*	*d.*
1870 . .	81	0	6·46	1874 . .	99	8	3·07
1871 . .	93	6	0·62	1875 . .	104	4	4·02
1872 . .	93	17	1·47	1876 . .	89	19	6·84
1873 . .	93	16	2·62				

The mining surveyors and registrars estimate that in 1876 605,859 oz., or 63 per cent. of the whole quantity of gold raised, was obtained from quartz reefs, and 357,901 oz., or 37 per cent. of the whole quantity raised, was obtained from alluvial deposits. In the two previous years the same officers estimated that 60 per cent. of the gold was got from quartz, and 40 per cent. from alluvial mines.

Of the steam engines employed in connexion with gold mining about a fourth are used on alluvial and three-fourths on quartz-workings. The following is the number of engines in use and their

[8] These amounts are sometimes incorrectly spoken of as the "average earnings" of the miners. As a very large proportion of the miners are working on wages, the gold they raise no more represents their individual earnings than do the products of a manufactory represent the earnings of its operatives.

horse-power in each of the last four years. It will be noticed that a slight falling off has taken place from year to year:—

STEAM ENGINES USED IN GOLD MINING, 1873 to 1876.

	Number.	Horse-power.		Number.	Horse-power.
1873	1,151	25,100	1875	1,101	24,224
1874	1,141	24,866	1876	1,081	23,947

The number of mining machines of all descriptions fell from 5220 in 1874, and 5098 in 1875, to 4893 in 1876, and the value of such machines fell from 2,078,936*l.* in 1874, and 2,033,629*l.* in 1875, to 1,989,500*l.* in 1876.

According to estimates made by the Mining Department, the number of quartz reefs proved to be auriferous was 3479 in 1875, and 3307 in 1876. It is pointed out, however, that these cannot in every case be distinct reefs, as parts of the same reef in different localities are held to be independent veins, and named accordingly; and, moreover, as the lines of reef are further explored, it is found that what were supposed to be separate reefs are in reality not distinct.

The area of auriferous ground worked upon was stated to be approximately 1063 square miles in 1874, 1094 square miles in 1875, and 1134 square miles in 1876. The figures are derived from estimates, not from actual surveys, and they vary from year to year. As the shallow alluviums of the older goldfields are abandoned by the miners, they are often occupied by agriculturists and gardeners, and ground which one year is included in the area embraced in gold-workings is properly excluded in another.

It is impossible to obtain an exact statement of the yield of auriferous quartz in any year, owing to the fact that many of the owners of machines for crushing quartz are unable to give, or are precluded from giving, information respecting their operations. The officers of the Mining Department, however, succeeded in obtaining particulars respecting the crushing of 949,469 tons in 1875, and 1,011,808 tons in 1876. The average yield per ton of these crushings was 11 dwt. 21·92 gr. in the former, and 10 dwt. 13·48 gr. in the latter year. From similar estimates, extending over a series of years, and embodying information respecting the crushing of more than 13,000,000 tons of quartz, an average is furnished of 11 dwt. 6·3 gr. of gold to the ton of quartz crushed.

Since the first issue of gold-mining leases, the total number granted has been 10,147, giving the right to mine over an area amounting in the aggregate to 185,150 acres. Of these leases, 274, for 4078 acres, were granted in 1876, and 1400, for 19,249 acres, were in force at the end of that year.

At the end of 1876 the following leases of Crown lands, conferring the privilege of working for minerals and metals other than gold, were in force. The leases exceeded by one the number at the end of 1875, but the area embraced therein was less by 2618 acres than that at the end of 1875 :—

LEASES FOR MINERALS AND METALS OTHER THAN GOLD, 1876.

Metals and Minerals.	Leases in force at end of 1876.	
	Number.	Area.
		acres.
Antimony	18	551
Argentiferous galena	1	154
Coal	10	4,957
Coal shale and lignite	1	640
Copper and the ores of copper	2	873
Flagging	1	10
Lignite	1	476
Silver	2	370
Silver, lead, and copper	1	562
Slate	1	50
Slate and flagging	2	20
Ironstone	1	320
Red ochre clay	1	2
Tin and iron	1	51
Tin and the ores of tin	8	1,076
Total	51	9,912

The following, according to the estimate of the Secretary for Mines, are the values of metals and minerals other than gold raised in Victoria since the first discovery of gold in 1851. The value of such metals and minerals raised in 1876 was 31,378*l.* :—

VALUE OF METALS AND MINERALS OTHER THAN GOLD, 1851 TO 1876.

	£		£
Silver . .	21,206	Flagging . . .	40,563
Tin . . .	336,391	Slates . . .	940
Copper . .	8,331	Magnesite . .	12
Antimony . .	120,040	Ores, mineral earthy clays, &c., unenumerated	2,608
Lead . . .	4,802	Diamonds . .	107
Iron . . .	2,111	Sapphires . .	625
Coal . . .	9,875	Total .	£557,306
Lignite . .	2,251		
Kaolin . .	7,444		

The following are quoted by the Mining Department as the weekly rate of wages paid for different descriptions of mining labour in the year 1876 :—

RATES OF MINING LABOUR, 1876.

	Per Week, without Rations.		Per Week, without Rations.
General manager .	£2 to £12	Carpenter .	£2 to £4
Legal manager .	10*s.* to £5	Foreman of Shift	£2 2*s.* to £3 10*s.*
Mining manager .	£2 10*s.* to £7	Miner . .	£1 10*s.* to £3
Engineer . .	£2 10*s.* to £6	Surface man (labourer) .	£1 5*s.* to £3.
Engine-driver .	£2 to £3 10*s.*	Boy . . .	10*s.* to £2 5*s.*
Pitman . .	£2 to £4	Chinese . .	12*s.* to £2 10*s.*
Blacksmith . .	£2 2*s.* to £4 10*s.*		

The total value of the produce raised from Victoria mines in 1876 was as follows :—

VALUE OF MINING PRODUCE, 1876.

	£
Value of gold raised	3,855,040
„ other metals and minerals . . .	31,378
Total	£3,886,418

The estimated value of agricultural, pastoral, and mining produce was as follows in the year under review. It will be observed that the pastoral produce is set down as of greater value than the agricultural and mining produce taken together :—

AGRICULTURAL, PASTORAL, AND MINING PRODUCE, 1876.

	£
Value of agricultural produce	5,574,239
„ pastoral produce	10,069,570 [9]
„ mining produce	3,886,418
Total	£19,530,227

ACCUMULATION.

Since the first opening in 1872 of a branch of the Royal Mint in Melbourne the following quantities of gold have been received thereat. A steady increase in the business is observable from year to year:—

GOLD RECEIVED AT THE MELBOURNE MINT, 1872 TO 1876.

Year.	Quantity.	Value.
	oz.	£
1872 . . .	190,738	764,917
1873 . . .	221,870	887,127
1874 . . .	335,318	1,349,102
1875 . . .	489,732	1,947,713
1876 . . .	543,198	2,149,481
Total . .	1,780,856	7,098,340

From the Mint both coin and bullion are issued; the coin with the exception of 165,000 half-sovereigns which were issued in 1873, has consisted entirely of sovereigns. The following is a statement of the gold issued, whether in the shape of coin or bullion:—

[9] The pastoral produce referred to is that derived from the live stock kept both by farmers and squatters.

GOLD ISSUED AT MELBOURNE MINT, 1872 TO 1876.

Year.	Coin.		Bullion.		Total Value of Coin and Bullion.
	Sovereigns.	Half-sovereigns.	Quantity.	Value.	
	number.	number.	oz.	£	£
1872	748,000	..	1,205,468	3,610	751,610
1873	752,000	165,000	3,106,002	11,035	845,535
1874	1,373,000	..	2,911,722	10,417	1,383,417
1875	1,888,000	..	3,552,872	13,857	1,901,857
1876	2,124,000	..	3,624,578	14,145	2,138,145
Total .	6,885,000	165,000	14,400,642	53,064	7,020,564

All the gold received at the Mint was not raised in Victoria. Some portion was produced in each of the other colonies of the group except Western Australia, and a small portion in Natal. The following were the quantities from these countries respectively prior to and during 1876 :—

VICTORIAN AND OTHER GOLD RECEIVED AT MELBOURNE MINT, 1872 TO 1876.

Country in which Gold was raised.	Quantity of Gold received.		
	Prior to 1876.	During 1876.	Total.
	oz.	oz.	oz.
Victoria . .	884,853	427,879	1,312,732
New South Wales	1,212	202	1,414
Queensland . .	1,141	190	1,331
South Australia .	24,455	9,647	34,102
Tasmania . .	12,340	10,094	22,434
New Zealand .	310,056	93,582	403,638
Natal . . .	446	289	735
Unknown . .	3,154	1,316	4,470
Total . .	1,237,657	543,199	1,780,856

The receipts at the Royal Mint during the five years of its existence have amounted to 31,702*l.* Of this sum, 8153*l.* was received during the past year.

There were twelve banks of issue in Victoria during 1876, possessing therein 293 branches or agencies. In the first year of each of the two previous quinquennial periods there were ten banks of issue in the colony.

From Hayter's Victorian "Year Book" for 1874.

PRODUCTION.

THE mode of disposing of Crown lands in Victoria has undergone numerous changes.[1] At first it was necessary that all land should be offered at auction before passing into the hands of private individuals, an upset price, according to its value, being placed upon it by the Government. Until 1840 the minimum upset price was 12*s.* per acre; it was then raised to 20*s.* Land which had passed the auctioneer's hammer without being bid for was open to be bought by any one at the upset price. Large blocks of land called special surveys, and a block of a square mile in extent upon each squatting run, were, under certain Orders in Council, exempted from auction, and were permitted to be purchased at 1*l.* per acre.

In 1860 the system was changed, and a law was passed permitting surveyed country lands to be selected at a uniform upset price of 1*l.* per acre, the only exception being where two or more selectors applied simultaneously for one block, in which case a limited auction, confined only to such applicants, was to take place. The successful selector had the option of either paying for the whole of his block in cash or only for half; in the latter case, renting the other half at 1*s.* per acre per annum, with the right to purchase at the same rate per acre as he paid for the first moiety. This Act imposed no conditions as to residence, cultivation, or improvement.

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[1] For much of the information in this and the next four paragraphs I am indebted to the Report of the Honourable the Minister of Lands for the year 1873.

The holdings and land referred to are exclusive of Crown lands held under squatting licences.

Another change was made in 1862. Large agricultural areas were proclaimed open for selection, within which land could be selected at a uniform price of 1*l.* per acre, lot being substituted for limited auction, in the event of there being more than one applicant for an allotment. For one-half of the allotment it was necessary to pay at once; but for the remainder the purchase-money was allowed to be paid by instalments of 2*s.* 6*d.* each, extending over eight years. No more than 640 acres could be selected by one person in twelve months. Three conditions, to be complied with within twelve months of the date of selection, were imposed upon selectors under this Act: the first being that the selections be enclosed with a substantial fence; the second, that a habitable dwelling be erected on the land; and the third, that one acre out of every ten selected be cultivated.

The next change was made in 1865, when an Act was passed providing that agricultural land could be acquired by payment of 2*s.* per acre per annum during three years, and by effecting improvements to the extent of 20*s.* per acre within two years of the commencement of the lease. These conditions having been complied with, the lessee might, at the expiration of three years, if he resided upon the land, purchase his holding at 1*l.* per acre; or, if not, he could require his leasehold to be offered at auction at the uniform price of 20*s.* per acre, with the value of improvements added in his favour. There was also a clause[2] in this Act whereby land adjacent to gold-fields could be occupied in blocks of twenty acres each without having been previously surveyed.

The operation of the last-mentioned clause was so successful in leading to the occupation of the land, that free selection before survey was the main principle of the next Land Act, which is the one at present in force. This Statute was passed in 1869, and came into operation on the 1st February, 1870. Under it 320 acres is the largest amount allowed to be selected by one person. The selection is held under

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[2] The 42nd clause. It was framed to meet the demand for the occupation of land adjacent to gold-fields. Its operation was gradually extended by regulation to a circuit of thirty miles around gold-fields, and the same individual was allowed to hold several twenty-acre licences for the occupation of adjacent land to the total extent of 160 acres. The licensee was bound either to reside on his holding or to fence and cultivate a certain portion.

licence during three years, within which period the licensee must reside on his selection at least two and a half years, must enclose it, cultivate one acre out of every ten, and generally effect substantial improvements to the value of 20*s*. per acre. The rent payable during this period is 2*s*. per acre per annum, which is credited to the selector as part payment of the principal. At the expiration of the three years' licence, the selector, if he obtain a certificate from the Board of Land and Works that he has complied with these conditions, may either purchase his holding by paying up the balance of 14*s*. per acre, or may convert his licence into a lease extending over seven years, at an annual rental of 2*s*. per acre, which is also credited to the selector as part payment of the fee-simple. On the expiry of this lease, and due payment of the rent, the land becomes the freehold of the selector.

Ten acres under olives and twenty-three acres under mulberry-trees were also returned in the year under review. The mulberry-trees numbered 30,650, and are grown for the purpose of feeding and rearing silkworms, this being an industry which, so far as it has gone, has been attended with great success in Victoria.[3] No particulars respecting the olive crop are given. Mulberry and olive-trees are frequently grown in gardens; and there is no doubt that both are much more extensively cultivated than the agricultural statistics indicate. This is also the case with raspberries; only three acres of which appear in the returns. Osiers, for basket-making, are often grown in swamps and on the banks of streams. They are usually planted in small patches, which do not come under the notice of the collectors of statistics. This is probably the reason that an amount of three acres only under osiers appears in the last table.

Land in fallow is included in the land under tillage. The quantity of this in the year under notice amounted to 97,133 acres, as against 77,912 acres in the previous year.

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[3] One company established near Castlemaine has planted 25,000 trees, which were brought from China, France, and Italy. They exported over 100 oz. of silkworm grain to the North of Italy in 1875, where it is said that, on account of its healthy appearance, it created quite a *furore* amongst the buyers. Some cocoons were also sent, which were highly approved of by competent judges.

VITAL STATISTICS.

Relative Mortality of each Quarter in Victoria and England and Wales.

Seasons.	Victoria.	England and Wales.	Deaths per 100 at all seasons.		
			Victoria.		England and Wales.
	Quarter ended on the last day of—		Year 1875.	Average of Ten Years: 1865-1874.	Average of Thirty-one Years.
Summer .	March .	September .	34·12	30·06	23·24
Autumn .	June .	December .	26·28	25·81	24·65
Winter .	September .	March .	18·19	21·37	27·49
Spring .	December .	June .	21·41	22·76	24·62
		Year . .	100·00	100·00	100·00

More than half the males who died during the year under review were under ten years of age, and more than half the females were under five years of age. It always happens that the proportion of deaths of persons under five years of age, and at each period over forty-five years of age, to the total number of deaths, is greater than the proportion of those living at the same ages to the total population. These and other facts are deduced from the figures in the following table, which show the estimated population and the number of deaths during 1875 at each age, and the percentage of each to the total numbers at all ages :—

Population and Deaths at each Age, 1875.

Ages.	Estimated Mean Population, at each Age, 1875.			Number of Deaths at each Age, 1875.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 5 years . .	65,066	65,097	130,163	3,835	3,444	7,279
5 years to 10 years .	59,090	59,660	118,750	534	532	1,066
10 „ 15 „ .	47,493	47,967	95,460	222	201	423
15 „ 25 „ .	55,461	60,517	115,978	363	415	778
25 „ 35 „ .	68,562	55,787	124,349	436	517	953
35 „ 45 „ .	80,867	46,549	127,716	813	532	1,345
45 „ 55 „ .	42,669	22,419	65,088	874	418	1,292
55 „ 65 „ .	16,643	9,646	26,289	726	271	997
65 „ 75 „ .	5,577	3,612	9,189	494	235	729
75 and upwards .	1,195	857	2,052	266	159	425
Total . . .	442,623	372,411	815,034	8,563	6,724	15,287

PROPORTIONS PER CENT.

Under 5 years . .	14·70	17·48	15·97	44·78	51·22	47·62
5 years to 10 years .	13·35	16·02	14·57	6·24	7·91	6·97
10 „ 15 „ .	10·73	12·88	11·71	2·59	2·99	2·77
15 „ 25 „ .	12·53	16.25	14·23	4·24	6·17	5·09
25 „ 35 „ .	15·49	14·98	15·26	5·09	7·69	6·23
35 „ 45 „ .	18·27	12·58	15·67	9·49	7·91	8·80
45 „ 55 „ .	9·64	6 02	7·99	10 21	6·22	8·45
55 „ 65 „ .	3·76	2·59	3·22	8·48	4·03	6·52
65 „ 75 „ .	1·26	·97	1·13	5·77	3·49	4·77
75 and upwards . .	·27	·23	·25	3·11	2·37	2·78
Total . . .	100·00	100·00	10·000	100·0	100·00	100·08

During the past year the death-rate of males was higher than that of females at each of the age periods below fifteen and over forty-five. Between fifteen and twenty-five the death-rates of both sexes were nearly equal, and from twenty-five to forty-five the death-rate of females was in excess of that of males. These proportions differ from those which obtained during the ten years which intervened between the censuses of 1861 and 1871, which are the ten years referred to below, in which the death-rate of males exceeded that of females at all periods of life, except between the ages of twenty-five and thirty-five. In England and Wales the death-rate of males exceeds that of females at all periods except those between ten years and thirty-five years. The figures are given in the following table:—

MORTALITY PER 1000 LIVING AT DIFFERENT AGES IN VICTORIA AND ENGLAND.

Ages.	Number of Deaths to every 1000 Living, at each Age.					
	Victoria.				England and Wales.	
	Year 1876.		Average of 10 years.		Average of 30 Years.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
All ages	19·35	18·06	16·68	16·13	23·33	21·51
Under 5 years . .	58·94	52·91	55·08	49·66	72·42	62·46
5 years to 10 years	9·04	8·92	7·52	6·95	8·79	8·67
10 „ 15 „ .	4·67	4·19	3·27	3·25	4·95	5·10
15 „ 25 „ .	6·55	6·86	4·95	4·81	7·90	8·22
25 „ 35 „ .	6·36	9·27	7·85	8·28	9·93	10·15
35 „ 45 „ .	10·05	11·36	12·09	11:12	13·03	12·30
45 „ 55 „ .	20·48	18·64	17·52	13·20	18·16	15 67
55 „ 65 „ .	43·62	28·09	29·71	21·98	31·53	28·56
65 „ 75 „ .	88·58	65·06	53·79	43·10	68·54	57·52
75 and upwards .	222·59	185·53	111·71	93·02	147·74	135·36

The death-rate of males in Victoria during 1875 exceeded that in the ten years respecting which the rate is given at all periods of life except those between twenty-five and forty-five; but the death-rate of females in 1875 exceeded that in the same ten years at all periods of life.

The death-rate of both males and females at all periods of life in Victoria during the ten years just referred to was lower than that in England and Wales, but in the year under review the death-rate of males at the period five to ten, and at all periods from forty-five upwards, was higher than that in England; and the death-rate of females at the periods five to ten, forty-five to fifty-five, and from sixty-five upwards, was higher than that in England.

One hundred and eighty-six of the persons who died during the year—viz. 110 males and seventy-six females—were eighty years old or upwards at the time of death. The following are the exact ages recorded:—

NUMBER DYING AGED EIGHTY OR UPWARDS.

Years of Age.	Males.	Females.	Years of Age.	Males.	Females.
80	24	10	91	..	1
81	14	10	94	2	1
82	9	13	95	1	1
83	7	9	96	1	..
84	13	6	99	1	..
85	11	7	101	..	1
86	7	1	103	..	1
87	5	3	114	..	1
88	5	4		—	—
89	8	5	Total	110	76
90	2	2		—	—

The following are the causes of death of these old people. Amongst those whose deaths were ascribed to old age were the male aged ninety-nine and the females aged 101 and 103. The female aged 114 died of bronchitis. The male who committed suicide was aged eighty-four:—

CAUSES OF DEATH OF PERSONS AGED EIGHTY OR UPWARDS.

	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.
Influenza	..	1	Dropsy	..	1
Dysentery and diarrhœa	7	4	Cancer	1	1
Rheumatism	1	..	Phthisis	1	1
Intemperance	1	..	Brain diseases	14	4
			Heart diseases	3	5

	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.
Lung diseases .	18	13	Accidents . .	2	2
Stomach diseases .	5	4	Suicide . .	1	..
Kidney diseases .	3	1			
Old age . .	53	39	Total . .	110	76

Deaths of infants of less than a year old were in the proportion of 14·3 per 100 births. This is above the average. In the eleven years ended with 1874 the proportion was 12·4 per 100 births, and since 1866, in which year it was 15·3 per 100, the rate of the year under review has not been reached. It is, however, below that of England and Wales, where, on the average, 15½ per cent. of the infants born die before completing their first year.

Of the infants born in the Lying-in Hospital, 9 per cent. in 1875, and 7 per cent. in the previous year, died before they left the institution.

Of the males who died in Victoria during 1875, the average age at death was 24·28 years, or about twenty-four years and three months; and of the females who died during the same year, the average age at death was 18·23 years, or about eighteen years and three months. The mean of these numbers is 21·25 years, or twenty-one years and three months. In the twenty-three years ended with 1875, the average at death was 21·7 years for males, and 15·01 years for females, the mean being 18·35 years.

The following are the causes of death during 1875 arranged in the order of their fatality, with the numbers who died from each cause; also the number of deaths from each cause during the 21½ years ended with 1874, and the order of fatality of the different causes of death during that period.

RELIGION.

THE nature of the religious belief professed by 716,000 persons, out of a total of 731,528, was expressed in the census schedules. Of the remainder, 9965 persons recorded their objection, on conscientious grounds, to state their religion; and in 5560 instances there was no entry in the "Religion" column. The following table gives a summary of the numbers of each religion:—

Religious Denominations.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Proportion per Cent.
Church of England	257,835	143,232	114,603	36·01
Presbyterians	112,983	60,695	52,288	15·78
Wesleyans	94,220	48,144	46,076	13·16
Independents	18,191	9,359	8,832	2·54
Baptists	16,311	8,156	8,155	2·28
Lutherans	10,55	7,206	3,353	1·47
Disciples of Christ, Christians	3,540	1,715	1,825	·49
Calvinists, Calvinistic Methodists	1,432	855	577	·20
Society of Friends	333	207	126	·05
Unitarians	1,016	661	355	·14
Other Protestants	1,121	672	449	·15
Roman Catholics	170,620	86,406	84,214	23·83
Greek Church	332	305	27	·05
Catholic and Apostolic Church	278	142	136	·04
Israelites and Christian Israelites	285	143	142	·04
Jews	3,571	2,010	1,561	·50
Pagans (Chinese)	17,650	17,620	30	2·47
Other sects	839	593	246	·12
No denomination	2,737	1,880	857	·38
No religion	2,150	1,531	619	·30
Total of specified beliefs	716,003	391,532	324,471	100·00
Unspecified	5,560	3,193	2,367	..
Objecting to state their religion	9,965	6,325	3,640	..
Total population	731,528	401,050	330,478	..

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—BIRTHPLACES OF INMATES, 1875.

Name of Institution.	Australian Colonies.	England and Wales.	Ireland.	Scotland.	China.	Other Countries and Unknown.	Total.
General Hospitals .	3,695	4,957	3,265	1,163	298	1,099	14,477
Lying-in Hospital, &c.	183	269	185	103	..	39	779
Blind Asylum . .	83	13	3	2	..	1	102
Deaf and Dumb Asylum	80	1	1	2	..	..	84
Eye and Ear Hospital	57	44	30	19	..	21	171
Benevolent Asylums.	76	785	525	167	25	105	1,683
Immigrants' Home .	951	4,726	2,961	810	..	781	10,229
Orphan Asylums .	1,106	28	17	6	1	104	1,262
Industrial Schools .	1,135	14	24	2	..	134	1,309
Hospitals for the Insane	225	779	996	273	93	723	3,089
Total .	7,591	11,616	8,007	2,547	417	3,007	33,185
Proportions per 1000 of the population	18·90	60·62	71·08	40·42	20·83	..	40·72

The same institutions which furnish returns of the birth-places, furnish also returns of the religions of their inmates, and the result is given in the following table. The figures in the lower line express the proportions returned of the estimated living population of each sect, brought on from the census in the same manner as has already been explained in the case of the birthplaces.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—RELIGIONS OF INMATES, 1875.

Name of Institution.	Protestants.	Roman Catholics.	Jews.	Pagans.	Of other Sects, of no Sect, and Unknown.	Total.
General Hospitals .	9,680	4,323	46	276	152	14,477
Lying-in Hospital, &c. .	537	237	3	..	2	779
Blind Asylum . .	84	17	1	..	..	102
Deaf and Dumb Asylum	71	13	..	..	..	84
Eye and Ear Hospital .	109	59	..		3	171
Benevolent Asylums .	1,123	526	8	10	16	1.683
Immigrants' Home .	6,646	3,105	..	2	476	10,229
Orphan Asylums .	643	588	..	..	31	1,262
Industrial Schools .	580	706	3	..	20	1,309
Hospitals for the Insane	1,546	955	16	92	480	3,089
Total . .	21,019	10,529	77	380	1,180	33,185
Proportions per 1000 of the population .	35·68	54·21	18·95	18.91	..	40·72

A statement of the receipts and expenditure of the same charities is given in the following table. It will be observed that the amounts received from Government are in the aggregate equal to three-fourths of the total revenue of the institutions. This is the same proportion of Government aid as that shown in the returns for 1874:—

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE, 1875.

Name of Institution.	Receipts.				Expenditure.
	From Government.	From Private Contributions.	From other Sources.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£	£
General Hospitals .	60,308	29,151	9,943	99,402	106,682
Lying-in Hospital, &c.	1,575	1,123	472	3,170	3,177
Blind Asylum . .	925	2,391	..	3,316	5,083
Deaf and Dumb Asylum	1,736	1,934	..	3,670	3,986
Eye and Ear Hospital	200	917	..	1,117	980
Children's Hospital .	400	1,577	..	1,977	1,238
Benevolent Asylums .	20,000	7,430	4,927	32,357	34,454
Immigrants' Home .	5,000	897	1,031	6,928	6,746
Orphan Asylums .	12,661	5,186	1,898	19,745	19,137
Industrial and Reformatory Schools .	52,265	..	4,593	56,858	53,675
Hospitals for the Insane	85,895	..	3,221	89,116	89,116
Female Refuges .	1,445	..	4,782	6,227	6,184
Total . .	242,410	50,606	30,867	323,883	330,458

Of the female Refuges, or asylums for fallen women, of which returns have been given in the foregoing tables, the following particulars may prove interesting. The females who were in or passed through the institutions during the year numbered 338. Of these, 86 were returned to friends or placed in service, 2 were married, 15 were discharged for misconduct, 6 died, 64 left voluntarily or for other reasons than those stated, and at the end of the year 173 were remaining in the institutions. Of the total number, 244, or 72 per cent., were inmates of the Magdalen Asylum, a Roman Catholic institution situated at Abbotsford, near Melbourne.

The children received into the Industrial Schools during the year, added to those in the institutions when the year commenced, numbered 2400, viz., 1356 boys and 1044 girls.

TARIFF OF VICTORIA, 1878.

ARTICLES IMPORTED BY LAND OR SEA.

Almonds, Shelled Arrowroot Confectionery, Comfits, Succades, Sweetmeats Fruits and Vegetables, dried or preserved Fruits, Boiled Honey Jam Jellies Maccaroni Maize Flour or Corn Flour Maizena Meats and Fish, preserved, not salted or dried or preserved in brine Meats, potted Spices, ground Sugar Candy Vermicelli	2*d.* per pint or lb., or reputed package of that quantity or weight, and so in proportion for any such reputed quantity or weight.
Almonds, Bacon, Biscuits, Blue, Butter, Candles, Cheese, Curled Hair, Glue, Hams, Mustard, Nuts (except cocoanuts), Soap, Starch, Stearine	2*d.* per lb.
Acetic Acid	3*d.* per pint or lb.
Acid—Sulphuric, Muriatic, Nitric	5*s.* per cwt.
Ale, Porter, Spruce, and other Beer, Cider, and Perry, for six reputed quart bottles or for twelve reputed pint bottles	9*d.*
Ale, Porter, Spruce, and other Beer, Cider, and Perry in wood or in bottles containing an Imperial quart or pint respectively	9*d.* per gallon.
Bags and Sacks—corn and flour	1*s.* per dozen.
Bags and Sacks—all other (except gunnies and sugar mats)	6*d.* per dozen.
Boots and Shoes—present English sizes to be Standard, viz.:—	
Men's, No. 6 and upwards	25*s.* per doz. pairs.
Youths', Nos. 2—5	15*s.* per doz. pairs.
Boys', Nos. 7—1	11*s.* per doz. pairs.
Women's, No. 3 and upwards	14*s.* per doz. pairs.

Boots and Shoes (*continued*):—	
Girls', Nos. 11—2	11*s.* per doz. pairs.
Girls', Nos. 7—10	7*s.* per doz. pairs.
Children's, Nos. 0—3	3*s.* per doz. pairs.
Children's, Nos. 4—6, and Slippers ..	6*s.* per doz. pairs.
Women's "Lasting" and "Stuff" Boots	10*s.* per doz. pairs.
Goloshes of all kinds	3*s.* per doz. pairs.
Slippers—Men's, Women's, and Children's, from No. 7 and upwards	7*s.* per doz. pairs.
Bricks, Fire	20*s.* per 1000.
Cards, Playing	3*s.* per doz. packs.
Chinaware and Porcelain (except Photographic and Telegraphic Materials) ..	9*d.* per cubic foot.
Cigars	5*s.* per lb.
Coffee, Chicory, Chocolate, Cocoa	3*d.* per lb.
Cordage, viz.:—Coir Rope	2*s.* per cwt.
Hempen and other Cordage (except of Galvanized Iron), including all housing and seizing lines and spun yarn	4*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
White lines and other descriptions of Cordage not otherwise specified (except coir yarn)	8*s.* per cwt.
Corks—Cut	4*d.* per lb.
Doors—Wooden	5*s.* each.
Drugs:—	
Acid—Carbolic	6*d.* per gallon.
„ „ pure	6*d.* per lb.
„ Oxalic	2*d.* per lb.
„ Picric	3*d.* per lb.
Aloes	12*s.* per cwt.
Ammonia, Carbonate of	2*d.* per lb.
„ Liquid	2*d.* per lb.
Cannabis Indica	1*d.* per lb.
Chlorodyne	1*s.* 4*d.* per lb.
Cocculus Indicus	1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
Faba Amara	1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
Gelatine	6*d.* per lb.
Glycerine—Pure	3*d.* per lb.
„ Crude	1*d.* per lb.
Grains of Paradise or Guinea Grains ..	2*s.* per cwt.
Morphia	1*s.* 6*d.* per oz.
Nitrate of Silver	6*d.* per oz.
Nux Vomica	1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
Potassium, Iodide of	10*d.* per lb.
„ Bromide of	3*d.* per lb.
Quassia	40*s.* per ton.
Strychnine	1*s.* per oz.

Dynamite	4*d.* per lb.
Earthenware (except Photographic and Telegraphic Materials)	9*d.* per cubic ft.
Felt Hoods, Pull-over Hoods, and any article of Felt prepared for the manufacture of Hats	5*s.* per dozen.
Fruit, Green	9*d.* per bushel.
Fuse	1½*d.* per coil of 24 feet, or less, and in proportion for any greater quantity.
Glass or Stone Bottles containing a reputed quart, or any less quantity of Spirits (not perfumed), Wine, Ale, Porter, or other Beer, and Bottles containing Aërated or Mineral Waters	6*d.* per dozen.
Glassware (except Locket, Brooch, and Watch Glasses, and Optical, Surgical, and Scientific Instruments, and Photographic and Telegraphic Materials) :—	
Glass Bottles for Aërated Waters and Medicines, Chimneys, Shades, and Globes of Plain Glass	6*d.* per cubic ft.
Glass Shades and Globes, and other Glassware, cut, engraved, etched, or ground	2*s.* 6*d.* per cubic ft.
All other Glassware, not being cut, engraved, etched, nor ground	9*d.* per cubic ft.
Grain and Pulse of every kind, not otherwise enumerated	1*s.* per 100 lbs.
Grain and Pulse of every kind, not otherwise enumerated, when prepared, ground, or in any way manufactured	2*s.* per 100 lbs.
Gun-cotton, or other material used for exploding purposes, not otherwise specified	5*d.* per lb.
Hops	3*d.* per lb.
Ink—Printing, coloured	6*d.* per lb.
Lead—Sheet and Piping	2*s.* 6*d.* per cwt.
Lithofracteur	4*d.* per lb.
Live Stock—	
Cows, Oxen, Heifers, Bulls, Steers, Calves over six months old (except working bullocks in teams)	5*s.* each.
Horses, Mares, Geldings, Colts and Fillies not in saddle or harness	5*s.* each.
Sheep, whether Rams, Ewes, Wethers, or Lambs	9*d.* each.
Pigs	2*s.* each.

Maize	6*d.* per 100 lbs.
Malt	2*s.* per bushel.
Matches and Vestas—	
Wooden Matches—	
For every gross of boxes, containing in each box 100 matches or under ..	6*d.*
For every gross of boxes containing in each box over 100 and not exceeding 200 matches	
And so on per gross of boxes for each additional 100 matches or part thereof	6*d.* additional.
Wax Vestas—	
For every gross of metal boxes, not otherwise specified, containing in each box 100 vestas or under	1*s.* 3*d.*
For every gross of metal boxes, not otherwise specified, containing in each box over 100 and not exceeding 200 vestas	2*s.* 6*d.*
And so on per gross of metal boxes for each additional 100 vestas or part thereof	1*s.* 3*d.* additional.
For every gross of paper, small round tin, or other boxes containing in each box 100 vestas or under	1*s.*
For every gross of paper, small round tin, or other boxes, containing in each box over 100 and not exceeding 200 vestas	2*s.*
And so on per gross of boxes for each additional 100 vestas or part thereof	1*s.* additional.
Nails—Iron (except for Trunks and Grindery)	3*s.* per cwt.
Nails—Horseshoe	12*s.* per cwt.
Oatmeal	3*s.* per 100 lbs.
Oils—Mineral, refined, Colza, and Olive, in bulk	6*d.* per gallon.
Oils, including Castor or Cod Liver when refined or for medicinal purposes, in bottles of a quart or less than a quart	quarts, 2*s.* per dozen, pints, 1*s.* per dozen, half-pints and smaller sizes, 6*d.* per dozen.
Onions	20*s.* per ton.
Opium, including all goods, wares, and merchandise mixed or saturated with opium or with any preparation or solution thereof, or steeped therein, respectively	10*s.* per lb.
Paddy	2*s.* per 100 lbs.
Paints ground in oil	40s. per ton.
„ mixed, ready for use	80*s.* per ton.

Paper—Note, letter, writing, fancy, and blotting, with cut edges	2*d.* per lb.
Paper, Uncut—Blotting, Surface, Drawing, and other Papers (except Printing and Writing in original wrappers, and uncut edges as it leaves the mill, Paper hangings, Cardboard and Millboard)	3*s.* per cwt.
Paper Bags	10*s.* per cwt.
Parasols and Sunshades, up to 18½ inches in length of ribs, including covers made up wholly or in part:—	
Of Silk or Silk Mixtures	1*s.* 9*d.* each.
Of Cotton, Woollen, or other material	4*d.* each.
Pearl and Scotch Barley	3*s.* per 100 lbs.
Pickles	quarts, 2*s.* 6*d.* per doz., pints, 1*s.* 6*d.* per doz., half-pints and smaller sizes, 9*d.* per doz.
Pipes, Cast-iron—flanged, spigot, and faucet, knees and elbows	40*s.* per ton.
Pipes, Smoking, wooden	6*s.* per gross.
Plate of Gold	8*s.* per oz. troy.
Plate of Silver	1*s.* per oz. troy.
Potatoes	10*s.* per ton.
Powder—Sporting (except fine powder imported in packages containing in bulk not less than 25lbs. weight each)	3*d.* per lb.
Powder, Blasting	1*d.* per lb.
Provisions, including Vegetables—Salted, dried, or preserved in brine (except Fish, not otherwise enumerated)	5*s.* per cwt.
Rice	3*s.* per 100 lbs.
Saddle-trees—Riding	20*s.* per dozen.
Harness	10*s.* per dozen.
Salt (except Rock Salt)	20*s.* per ton.
Shot	1*d.* per lb.
Snuff	2*s.* per lb.
Soda Crystals	40*s.* per ton.
Spirits or Strong Waters of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes's Hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof	10*s.* per gall., or 40*s.* for each reputed 4-gall. case, or 20*s.* for each reputed 2-gall. case, when the said cases respectively do not contain more than the reputed contents, and so on for each reputed gallon or part of a gallon.

Spirits, Cordials, Liqueurs, or Strong Waters, sweetened or mixed with any article so that the degree of strength cannot be ascertained by Sykes's Hydrometer (including all alcohol diluted or undiluted with water or other menstruum, and containing in solution any essence, essential oil, ether, or other flavouring or other substance, whether of natural or artificial origin)	10*s.* per gallon.
Spirits, Perfumed	20*s.* per gallon.
Spirits, Methylated	1*s.* per liquid gallon.
Sugar and Molasses (except unrefined Molasses)	3*s.* per cwt.
Tea	3*d.* per lb.
Timber—Dressed or planed	1*s.* 6*d.* per 100 sup. ft.
„ Hardwood, undressed	9*d.* per 100 sup. ft.
„ Laths	1*s.* per 1000.
„ Shingles	6*d.* per 1000.
„ Palings	6*d.* per 100.
„ Rough Spokes and Felloes (except hickory) and Swan Pickets ..	6*d.* per 100.
Tobacco (except Sheepwash) :—	
Manufactured	2*s.* per lb.
Unmanufactured	1*s.* per lb.
Twine (except Sewing or Seaming, of hemp, cotton, or flax)	1½*d.* per lb.
Umbrellas over 18½ inches in length of ribs, including covers made up wholly or in part :—	
Of Silk or Silk Mixtures	1*s.* 9*d.* each.
Of Cotton, Woollen, or other Material	9*d.* each.
Varnish, including Lithographic	2*s.* per gallon.
Vinegar, not being acetic acid or crude vinegar, aromatic or raspberry	6*d.* per gallon.
Window Sashes	2*s.* per pair.
Wine—Sparkling	6*s.* per gallon.
Wine—Other	4*s.* per gallon.
Woolpacks	3*s.* per dozen.

THE FOLLOWING GOODS ARE 20 PER CENT. AD VALOREM :—

Articles of Artificial Human Hair manufactured, viz. : — Head Dresses, Hair Plaits, Hair Plait Stems, Side Pads, Chignons.
Articles of Apparel, whether wholly or partly made up (except Hosiery).
Blacking.
Bonnets (except Straw, untrimmed).
Brownware and Tiles.
Brushware (except Artists' Brushes).

Caps.
Carriages and Carts (except Carriages and other Vehicles used in the conveyance of passengers and goods across the frontier).
Fireworks.
Frilling and Ruffling, Muslin and Net Plaitings.
Furniture.
Furniture Oil and Paste.
Ground Coal and Charcoal.
Hats (except Straw, untrimmed).
Jaconet Frilling and Ruffles.
Jewellery (except Cameos and Precious Stones unset), manufactured wholly or in part.
Agricultural Implements.
Boilers (Land and Marine).
Machinery not otherwise enumerated (except Machinery for Carding, Spinning, Weaving, and Finishing the manufacture of fibrous material, and Cards for such machinery, Sewing and Printing Machines and Presses, Machinery used in the manufacture of Paper and for Felting, including Wire-cloth and Felts, and Machines for Telegraphic purposes).
Manufactures of Metals (excepting Steel Cranks and Tires in the rough).
Mats.
Manufactured Stationery, including Account Books, Printed Cheques, Bill Heads, and other Printed or Ruled Paper, Blotting Pads, Sketch Blocks, Manifold Writers, Albums, and all kinds of Jewel, Dressing, and Writing Cases (excepting Pens, Penholders, Pencils, Pencil-cases, and Slates).
Marble and Stone—Wrought (except Slate Slabs not wholly manufactured, Lithographic Stones and Stones for Milling and Grinding purposes).
Musical Instruments, being Pianofores, Organs, and Harmoniums, including Pianoforte Actions made up (except Action-work in separate pieces, including Rails and Keys).
Oilmen's Stores (except Essential Oils and Essences not containing Alcohol), packed in bottles or jars not exceeding one reputed quart in size.
Saddles and Harness, Leatherware or Articles made up of Leather, or any Manufacture of which Leather is the most valuable part, including Whips of any description, and Trunks and Portmanteaus.
Silks :—
- Dress Silks in the piece (except Pongees) and Dress Satins in the piece
- Silk and Union Velvets in the piece, Silk and Union Crapes in the piece
- All Dress Goods in the piece of which Silk is the component material of chief value.

Tents and Tarpaulins.
Washing, Baking, and Seidlitz Powders.
Wickerware.
Woodenware, including Bellows and Picture Frames, Turnery (except Billiard Balls in the rough) Staves shaped or dressed, and Casks and finished Timber not otherwise enumerated (except Engravers' Boxwood, Shafts and Poles in the rough, Gilt Mouldings and Beadings for Picture Frames of Wood or other materials, and Artists' Materials).

THE FOLLOWING GOODS ARE 10 PER CENT. AD VALOREM :—

Aërated or Mineral Waters.
Carpeting and Druggeting.
Clocks.
Combs.
Gloves.
Gold and Silver Leaf.
Grease—Antifriction.
Leather (except Patent Leather and Calf, Crust or Rough-tanned Hog-skins Calf and Goat).
Leather cut into shapes, including Elastic-side Uppers and Wellington Legs, Clogs, and Pattens.
Matting, Cocoanut and Jute
Oilmen's Stores, not otherwise enumerated except Isinglass (uncut).
Perfumery.
Plated and Mixed Metal Ware (except Door Handles, Locks, Shaft Tips, Stump and Finger Joints, and Slot Irons, used in Carriage Building, Whip and Harness Mountings.
Seeds, Canary.
Springs—Sofa, Chair, and other Furniture.
Types—Brass, Typeholders, Ornamental Rolls and Line Fillets, for Bookbinders.
Watches.
Woollen Blankets or Blanketing, Rugs, and Rugging.
Woollen Piece Goods, being Vestings, Trouserings, Coatings, and Shirtings, containing Wool; Broadcloths, Witneys, Naps, and Flannels.
Silks in the piece known as Pongees—10 per cent.
Silks and Satins in the piece, Silk Velvets, Crapes. and Poplins in the piece (except Hatters' Silk Plush, Umbrella Silk, Gossamer and Silk for Flour Dressing) :—
Under twenty inches wide—6*d.* per yard.
Twenty inches to thirty inches wide—9*d.* per yard.
Over thirty inches wide—1*s.* per yard.
Pongees, Sarsnets, and Silks in the piece, used for trimming or millinery purposes, and all manufactures in the piece of which Silk is the component material of chief value (except Elastic Boot Web) :—
Under twenty inches wide—3*d.* per yard.
Twenty inches to thirty inches wide—4*d.* per yard.
Over thirty inches wide—6*d.* per yard.

EXPORT DUTY.

Scrap Iron.. .. .. 3*l.* per ton.

THE FOLLOWING GOODS ARE EXEMPT FROM IMPORT DUTY :—

Apparel, Slops, and all Articles made up wholly or in part from Silk, Cotton, Linen, or of Wool, or of other or of Mixed Material, except the following Articles of Apparel, whether wholly or partly made up (except Hosiery), viz. :—

Aprons, Breeches, Coats, Capes, Cloaks, Costumes, Collars, Cuffs, Sleeves and Sets, Crinolines, Camisoles, Dresses, Furs made up, Frocks, Fronts, Infants' Hoods and Hats, Infants' Swathes and Bibs, Jackets, Knickerbocker Suits or portions of Suits, Leggings, Mantles, Muslin and Net Scarfs, Night Dresses, Pants, Pelisses, Petticoats, Pinafores, Ruffles, Robes, Shirts of all kinds, Skirts, Stays, Shawls, Trousers, Tunics, Vests, Wristbands, Men's, Women's, and Children's Underclothing.

Also the following Articles of Artificial Human Hair manufactured, viz.:—

Head Dresses, Hair Plaits, Hair Plait Stems, Side Pads, Chignons; also Mats.

Bath Bricks.

Cartridges.

Cement.

Drugs, all excepting those specially mentioned.

Drugs, preparations of.

Fancy Goods.

Fine Gunpowder, imported in packages containing in bulk not less than 25 lbs. weight each.

Fish, salted, dried, or preserved in brine.

Gilt Mouldings and Beadings for Picture Frames of Wood or other material.

Hickory Spokes and Felloes in the rough.

Hosiery.

Iron, Galvanized.

Iron Wire, Nos. 1 to 9.

Ivory Billiard Balls in the rough.

Machinery used in the manufacture of Paper and for Felting, including Wire Cloth and Felts.

Manufactures of Metals as follows:—

Anvils.
Beams and Scales.
Bridle and Boot Hooks.
Cast-iron Tanks.
Cast-iron Ventilators.
Caulking Irons.
Chains.
Chest Handles.
Coach Screws.
Cork Squeezers.
Cramps (wrought-iron).
Curling Irons.
Diving Apparatus.
Ferrules (wrought-iron).
Funnel Pipes.
Gasometers.
Lightning Conductors.
Marline Spikes.
Measures (iron).
Pincers.
Rakes.
Sad Irons.
Steelyards.
Strap Hinges.
Switching Bills.
Vices.

Materials for Toilet Covers, Antimacassars, Curtains, Handkerchiefs, and materials cut out, defined, marked, or in any way prepared for making up.

Milk, prepared or condensed.

Molasses, unrefined.

Musical Instruments (except Pianofortes, Organs, Harmoniums, and Pianoforte Actions made up).

Oil or other Floorcloths.

Oils in bulk, except Mineral Oils refined, Colza, and Olive.

Paints, wet or dry (except Paints ground in oil and Paints mixed ready for use).

Plated Door Handles, Locks, Shaft Tips, Stump and Finger Joints, and Slot Irons used in carriage building, and Whip and Harness Mountings.
Rock Salt.
Screws.
Sewing or Seaming Twine of hemp cotton, or flax.
Shafts and Poles in the rough.
Silks, and all Manufactures containing Silk (except Dress Silks in the piece and Dress Satins in the piece, Silk and Union Velvets in the piece, Silk and Union Crapes in the piece, all Dress Goods in the piece of which Silk is the component material of chief value, Silks in the piece known as Pongees.
Slates.
Slate Slabs not wholly manufactured.
Stationery not otherwise enumerated.
Timber, undressed (except hardwood).
Toys.
Woollen Piece Goods, or of other Material mixed with Wool (except Woollen Piece Goods, being Vestings, Trouserings, Coatings, and Shirtings containing Wool, Broadcloths, Witneys, Naps, and Flannels.

RELIGIOUS, MORAL, AND INTELLECTUAL PROGRESS OF VICTORIA.

(*Extracted from "Year-Book" of Mr. Henry Heylyn Hayter, 1876-7, Government Statist.*)

It was prescribed in a measure passed by the Colonial Legislature, and duly assented to by Her Majesty, entitled "An Act to provide for the Abolition of State Aid to Religion" (34 Vict., No. 391), that from and after the 31st day of December, 1875, no moneys should be set apart for the advancement of the Christian religion in Victoria under the provisions of the 53rd section, and for public worship under the 8th part of Schedule D, of the Constitution Act. In 1876, therefore, for the first time since the Victorian Constitution was proclaimed twenty years previously, no monetary assistance was given to religion by the State.

The following are the numbers of registered clergy, of buildings used for public worship, of persons such buildings could accommodate, of those usually attending divine service, and of the services performed in connexion with each religious denomination during the year 1876:—

CHURCHES AND CLERGY, 1876.

Religious Denominations.	Number of Registered Clergy.	Churches and other Buildings used for Public Worship.			Number of Services during the Year.
		Number.	Persons for whom there is Accommodation.	Persons usually Attending.	
Church of England	135	424	64,640	38,494	26,036
Roman Catholics	96	423	91,403	68,386	38,032
Presbyterians	157	602	73,535	63,220	32,158
Wesleyans	138	849	135,814	94,286	85,424
Independents	47	112	16,998	8,956	8,459
Baptists	47	68	12,615	9,070	10,738
Evangelical Lutherans	12	53	6,800	4,700	3,800
Welsh Calvinists	2	8	1,650	1,100	1,005
Church of Christ	11	36	7,250	3,500	4,300
Other Christians	13	19	2,530	1,070	3,731
Jews	6	7	1,410	430	1,464
Other sects	..	1	300	200	52
Total	664	2,602	414,945	293,412	215,199

The following table shows the number of Sabbath schools attached to each religious sect, the number of teachers, and the number of scholars in 1876:—

SABBATH SCHOOLS, 1876.

Religious Denominations.	Number of Sabbath Schools.	Number of Teachers.	Number of Scholars.
Church of England	251	2,156	19,654
Roman Catholics	221	1,073	17,892
Presbyterians	316	2,356	26,456
Wesleyans	492	5,062	34,305
Independents	54	639	4,739
Baptists	67	400	4,606
Evangelical Lutherans	15	51	570
Welsh Calvinists	7	107	651
Church of Christ	16	152	1,210
Other Christians	8	34	336
Jews	4	12	315
Other sects	1	17	59
Total	1,452	12,059	110,793

The totals in the above table show a slight increase as compared with similar totals for 1875. Sabbath schools were more numerous by twenty-two, the teachers by four, and the scholars by 2405, than those in that year.

The children at the school age in the colony during 1876 probably amounted to about 196,000. The children attending Sabbath schools during the same year were in the proportion of 57 per cent. of that number.

The Melbourne University was established under a special Act of the Victorian Legislature (16 Vict., No. 34), which was assented to on the 22nd January, 1853. This Act provides for the endowment of the University by the payment of 9000*l.* annually out of the general revenue; also that no religious test shall be administered to any one to entitle him to be admitted to the rights and privileges of the institution; also for the appointment of a council consisting of twenty members, of whom sixteen at least must be laymen, and for the election by them out of their own body of a chancellor and a vice-chancellor; also for the constitution of a senate, to be presided over by a warden, as soon as the superior degrees of master of arts, doctor of medicine, doctor of laws, or doctor of music should number not less than 100. This number was reached in 1867, and the senate was constituted on the 14th of June of that year.

Royal letters patent, under the sign manual of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, were issued on the 14th March, 1859, declaring that all degrees granted or thereafter to be granted by the Melbourne University should be recognized as academic distinctions and rewards of merit, and should be entitled to rank, precedence, and consideration in the United Kingdom, and in British colonies and possessions throughout the world just as fully as if they had been granted by any University in the United Kingdom.

The foundation stone of the University was laid on the 3rd July, 1854, and the building was opened on the 3rd October of the following year.

The number of students who matriculated in 1876 was seventy-three, as against ninety-three in the previous year. The matriculations in 1876 were fewer than in any year since 1869. From the opening of the University to the end of 1876 the total number of students who matriculated was 996.

In 1876, as compared with 1875, a falling off of twenty-two, and

as compared with 1874 a falling off of one, took place in the number of students attending lectures. The numbers in the year under review attending lectures in the different subjects taught at the University were as follow :—

MELBOURNE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS, 1876.

Subject of Lectures.	Number of Students attending Lectures.		
	Matriculated.	Non-matriculated.	Total.
Arts	48	..	48
Laws	45	..	45
Engineering . . .	24	3	27
Medicine . . .	56	2	58
Total . .	173[4]	5	178

The following table shows the number of degrees conferred at the University between the date of its first opening and the end of 1876, those taken in the last-named year being distinguished :—

MELBOURNE UNIVERSITY GRADUATES, 1855 TO 1876.

Degrees.	Prior to 1876.			During 1876.			Total.		
	Direct.	*Ad eundem.*	Total.	Direct.	*Ad eundem.*	Total.	Direct.[5]	*Ad eundem.*	Total.
Bachelor of Arts .	102	49	151	11	2	13	113	51	164
Master of Arts .	61	64	125	6	5	11	67	69	136
Bachelor of Medicine	26	6	32	9	..	9	35	6	41
Doctor of Medicine .	11	57	68	...	2	2	11	59	70
Bachelor of Laws .	38	5	43	2	..	2	40	5	45
Doctor of Laws .	1	10	11	...	1	1	1	11	12
Total .	239	191	430	28	10	38	267	201	468

[4] These were not all distinct individuals. The number of undergraduates attending lectures in 1876, each undergraduate being counted only once, was 170.

[5] These figures do not always refer to distinct individuals. Of the 267 in the total, sixty-one received more than one degree.

The following is a statement of the receipts and expenditure of the University in the last two years. An increase will be noticed in the revenue, chiefly resulting from the larger amount received from Government, as a falling off took place in the receipts from college fees, but a decrease in the expenditure :—

MELBOURNE UNIVERSITY.—RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE, 1875 AND 1876.

Year.	Receipts from—				Expenditure.
	Government.	College Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£	£
1875 . . .	9,000	5,947	232	15,179	15,907
1876 . . .	11,250	5,473	277	17,000	14,667
Increase . .	2,250	..	45	1,821	..
Decrease . .	..	474	..	..	1,240

The present Education Act (36 Vict., No. 447) came into operation on the 1st January, 1873. The following is a statement of the number of schools aided or supported by the State, and of the instructors and scholars in such schools, at the end of the year prior to and of each of the years which have elapsed since that period :—

PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 1872 TO 1876.

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Instructors.	Number of Scholars.		
			On the Rolls.	In Average Attendance.	Distinct Children (estimated).
1872 . .	1,048	2,416	135,962	68,436	118,498[6]
1873 . .	1,078	3,149	207,826	98,746	181,131
1874 . .	1,111	3,715	216,144	104,375	188,380
1875 . .	1,320	3,826	220,533	101,495	195,252
1876 . .	1,498	3,722	231,560	106,758	194,018

[6] The Minister of Public Instruction has pointed out in his report for 1876-7, that the mode of computing the distinct children in 1876 was different from that adopted in former years. If the latter had been continued, the estimate for 1876 would have been 201,817.

By comparing the figures on the lowest line with those on the uppermost, it will be ascertained that since the present Education Act has been in force the following increases have taken place in and in connexion with the schools aided or supported by the State:—

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—INCREASE BETWEEN 1872 AND 1876.

Schools	450
Instructors	1356
Scholars on the rolls	95,598
,, in average attendance	38,322
Distinct children attending (estimated)	75,520

By making a comparison between the figures in the two last lines of the same table, the increase or decrease in 1876 will be shown as follows:—

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—INCREASE OR DECREASE IN 1876.

INCREASE.

Schools	178
Scholars on the rolls	11,027
Scholars in average attendance	5263

DECREASE.

Instructors	54
Distinct children attending (estimated)	1234[7]

The falling off in the number of teachers during 1876 was in the assistants and pupil teachers, both male and female. The masters increased by forty-one, the mistresses by ten, and the work-mistresses by nine. The following is a return of male and female teachers employed in 1876 and in the former year:—

TEACHERS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 1875 AND 1876.

Year.	Males.				Females.				
	Masters.	Assistants.	Pupil Teachers.	Total.	Mistresses.	Assistants	Work-mistresses.	Pupil Teachers.	Total.
1875 .	1,184	263	365	1,812	109	625	547	733	2,014
1876 .	1,225	239	355	1,819	119	572	556	706	1,953
Increase	41	..	..	7	10	..	9		..
Decrease	..	24	10	..	..	53	..	27	61

[7] It is probable that this decrease did not really take place. See previous foot-note.

The following is a statement of the number of private schools, of the instructors employed therein, and of the scholars attending during the five years ended with 1876 :—

PRIVATE SCHOOLS, 1872 TO 1876.

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Instructors.	Number of Scholars.
1872 .	888	1,841	24,781
1873 .	653	1,446	18,428
1874 .	610	1,509	22,448
1875 .	565	1,511	27,481
1876 .	645	1,646	28,847

The first of the years shown in the table is the one immediately prior to that in which the Education Act came into operation. It will be observed that in 1876 the private schools and instructors connected with them were fewer than the number in that year, but the scholars attending private schools exceeded by upwards of 4000 the number in that year. The following figures show the decrease of the two former and the increase of the latter :—

PRIVATE SCHOOLS, ETC.—INCREASE OR DECREASE BETWEEN 1872 AND 1876.

Increase.		Decrease.	
Scholars . .	4066	Schools . .	243
		Instructors .	195

By comparing the two lowest lines of the same table it will be found that in 1876 an increase took place in the number of private schools, and of the teachers and scholars connected therewith. These increases are indicated by the following figures :—

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.—INCREASE IN 1876.

Schools	80
Instructors	135
Scholars	1366

The male teachers in private schools numbered 542 and the female teachers 1104 in 1876, as against 524 and 987 in the previous year.

In 1876, for the first time, an attempt was made to ascertain the religious denominations, if any, the various private schools were connected with. The following is the result :—

PRIVATE SCHOOLS, 1876—RELIGIOUS SECTS CONNECTED WITH.

Religious Sect.	Number of Schools.	Number of Teachers.	Number of Scholars.
Church of England . .	41	159	1,491
Presbyterian . . .	4	46	612
Wesleyan . . .	2	12	221
Independent . . .	1	1	20
Lutheran . . .	3	4	68
Protestants (undefined) .	9	27	338
Roman Catholic . .	111	338	13,430
Jewish	2	10	270
Not any, or not stated .	472	1,049	12,397
Total . .	645	1,646	28,847

By these figures it may be ascertained that, in 1876, 173 private schools, or 27 per cent., employing 597 instructors, or 36 per cent., and educating 16,450 children, or 57 per cent. of the total numbers were connected with some religious denomination; also that 13,430 children, or about 46 per cent. of the total number attending private schools, or 82 per cent. of the number attending schools connected with some religious sect, were being educated in schools claiming connexion with the Roman Catholic Church.

If, for the five years of which mention has already been made, the totals shown in the public schools table be added to those in the table relating to private schools, the growth of the school system since the year prior to that in which the Education Act came into operation will be readily observed:—

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS, 1872 TO 1876.

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Instructors.	Number of Scholars on the Rolls.
1872 .	1,936	4,257	160,743
1873 .	1,731	4,595	226,254
1874 .	1,721	5,224	238,592
1875 .	1,885	5,337	248,014
1876 .	2,143	5,418	260,407

By comparing the first and last lines of the table, it appears that in 1876 there were upwards of 200 more schools, with about 1160 more teachers, and nearly 100,000 more children on the rolls, than there were in the year prior to that in which the present State School system was introduced. The following are the exact figures :—

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS.—INCREASE FROM 1872 TO 1876.

Schools	207
Instructors	1161
Scholars on the rolls	99,664

The increase in 1876, as shown by the difference between the two last lines in the table, was as follows :—

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS.—INCREASE IN 1876.

Schools	258
Instructors	81
Scholars on the rolls	12,393

The following table shows the sexes of the scholars in both public and private schools during each of the last two years :—

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS.—SEXES OF SCHOLARS, 1875 & 1876.

Year.	Public Schools.		Private Schools.		Total.	
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
1875 .	115,774	104,759	13,106	14,375	128,880	119,134
1876 .	122,350	109,210	13,455	15,392	135,805	124,602
Increase .	6,576	4,451	349	1,017	6,925	5,468

Boys in public schools were slightly more numerous than girls in both years, but in private schools the reverse was the case. The proportions in 1876 were ninety-two girls to 100 boys in public and private schools combined, or eighty-nine girls to 100 boys in public schools, and 114 girls to 100 boys in private schools.

The numbers of male and female teachers have been already given. It will be observed that in public schools more females were employed than males, and that in private schools the females employed were more than twice as numerous as the males. The proportion of the sexes in the two descriptions of schools combined were 130 females to

100 males; or in public schools 107 females to 100 males, and in private schools 204 females to 100 males.

The number of children receiving education in Victoria at the end of 1876 may be estimated as follows:—

CHILDREN OF ALL AGES RECEIVING EDUCATION, 1876.

Being educated—	
In State schools	194,018
In private schools	28,847
In industrial and reformatory schools	1191[8]
At home[9] (estimated)	20,000
Total	244,056

The age prescribed by the Education Act as that at which children shall attend school, unless there be some reasonable excuse for their not doing so, is from six to fourteen years last birthday, both inclusive. Of the children just named it may be estimated that the following were at those ages:—

CHILDREN AT SCHOOL AGE RECEIVING EDUCATION, 1876.

Being educated—	
In State schools	152,147[1]
In industrial and reformatory schools	1006
In private schools and at home (estimated)	38,323
Total	191,476

Supposing the number at the school age living at the last census brought on by proportion to represent the children in the colony at that age at the end of 1876, the number would be 196,047, and the following would be the numbers and percentage of these receiving and not receiving education:—

---

[8] Including all of three years old and upwards.

[9] At the last census the children returned as being educated at home numbered 20,309. The sub-enumerators were directed to enter as such only those who were under a regular master or governess, but it is probable that some were included who were being educated by parents. I have, therefore, not increased, in fact have slightly reduced, the census number.

[1] Figures taken from Education Report, 1876-7, page v.

CHILDREN AT SCHOOL AGE RECEIVING AND NOT RECEIVING EDUCATION, 1876.

	Numbers.	Percentage.
Being educated . .	191,476	97·67
Not being educated . .	4571	2·33
Total at school age .	196,847	178·00

By these figures it would appear that all but 2⅓ per cent. of the children at the school age were attending school at the end of 1876. It should, however, be borne in mind that the estimate of the total number of children at that age is based upon the assumption that they exist in the colony in the same proportion as they did when the census was taken, which is by no means certain or even likely.

The following sums were disbursed by the Education Department in the last two years. The amounts on the lowest line were paid by parents; all the remainder was granted by the State:—

EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, 1875 AND 1876.

Items of Expenditure.	Amount Expended.		Increase.	Decrease.
	1875.	1876.		
	£	£	£	£
Salaries . . .	258,474	274,126	15,652	..
Results	67,874	77,844	9,970	..
Bonuses . . .	3,253	4,288	1,035	..
Training . . .	1,938	2,959	1,021	..
Books and requisites .	2,073	4,449	2,376	..
Cleaning . . .	22,418	24,361	1,943	..
Boards of Advice . .	247	680	433	..
Exhibitions . . .	921	1,054	133	..
Singing	5,155	7,108	1,953	..
Drawing . . .	2,128	2,878	750	..
Buildings . . .	169,382	96,391	..	72,991
Rent	10,895	10,247	..	648
Extra subjects . .	3,659	4,023	364	..
Total . .	548,417	510,408	..	Net Decrease. 38,009

It will be observed that an increase took place in the expenditure under all the heads except rent and the erection of buildings, but that the total expenditure of the department in 1876 was less by 38,000*l.* than that in 1875.

Five of the schools included in all the years with the private schools are called colleges or grammar schools. These at some former period received sums of money and grants of land from the Government for the erection of school buildings, but no State assistance has been given them of late years. They are all connected with some religious denomination, and in connexion with several of them there are exhibitions, chiefly with the view of assisting the ablest pupils to complete their education at the University. The following is the return of these institutions for the year under review :—

COLLEGES, GRAMMAR SCHOOLS,[2] ETC.

Name of Institution.	Religious Denomination.	Amount received towards Building in former Years.	Year 1876.	
			Number of Masters.	Number of Scholars.
		£		
Melbourne Grammar School . .	Church of England . .	13,784	10	209
Geelong Grammar School . .	„	7,000	8	132
Scotch College . .	Presbyterian .	6,445	15	330
Wesley „ . .	Wesleyan. .	2,769	11	199
St. Patrick's „ . .	Roman Catholic	2,500	9	165
	Total . .	32,498	53	1,035

[2] At the Melbourne Grammar School are three scholarships of the annual value of 21*l.*, for boys under fourteen, open only to members of the school, and tenable at it for three years; and two exhibitions of the same annual value tenable for two years, open to the competition of boys proceeding to the Melbourne University, whose names have been for the two previous years on the books of the school, and who have passed the matriculation examination with credit. In connexion with the Wesley College there is a scholarship called the "Draper's Scholarship," established in memory of the late Rev. D. J. Draper, who

The Melbourne Public Library was opened on the 11th February, 1856, at which time only a small portion of the building had been completed. Very important additions have, however been made to it since, but it is still unfinished. The total cost of the buildings to the end of 1876 was 111,604*l.* These funds were provided by the State, as also were further moneys, amounting, with the sum just named, to 248,255*l.*, of which 16,317*l.* was received in 1876. From the period of its opening, the library has received presents from private persons of nearly 80,000 objects, consisting of books, pamphlets, maps, newspapers, &c. Of these, about 50,000 were donations, and the remainder were deposited under the Copyright Statute. The estimated value of these contributions is 11,429*l.* The total number of volumes in the institution, at the end of 1876, was 93,967, of which 6387 were added during the year. The library, which is kept open to the public without payment on all working days from ten a.m. to ten p.m., was visited during 1876 by 214,165 persons. This number is slightly less than that in the two previous years.

The National Gallery is in the same building as the Melbourne Public Library. It contained, at the end of 1876, seventy-seven oil paintings, 162 statues and works of art, and 5908 watercolour drawings, engravings, photographs, &c. Schools of painting and design, established in 1870, are attached to this institution, the former of which was attended in 1876 by eight male and forty two female students, and the latter by forty-five male and seventy-seven female students. The public are admitted on working days, without charge, from the hour of noon to five p.m. in the summer and to four p.m. in the winter.

The Industrial and Technological Museum joins the National Gallery, and was opened on the 7th September, 1870. It now contains 725 publications; 19,850 specimens; and 112 drawings. It is open on the same days and during the same hours as the National Gallery. Class lectures, given in 1876, on chemistry, were attended by thirty-two; on mining and mineralogy, by fifteen; and on telegraphy, by thirty students.

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perished in the *London*. It is of the value of 25*l.*, tenable for one year. There are also at the same institution two other scholarships founded by Mrs. Powell, called the "Walter Powell Scholarships," in memory of her late husband. They are of the value of 40*l.* each, payable in two annual instalments of 20*l.*

The collections of the National Museum are kept in a building situated in the grounds of the Melbourne University. They consist of specimens of minerals, stuffed animals and birds, insects, and other objects of curiosity. The cost of the edifice was about 8500*l.* It is open to the public free of charge on all weekdays throughout the year, except Christmas Day and Good Friday, between the hours of ten a.m. and five p.m., and in 1876 was visited by 96,558 persons. During the same year purchases were made to the extent of 1031*l.*, payments for salaries and wages amounted to 1358*l.*

There is a free library in connexion with the Patent Office attached to the Registrar-General's Office, Melbourne. This contains about 3000 volumes, consisting of the patent records of Great Britain, Victoria, New South Wales, New Zealand, Canada, the United States, Italy, Germany, &c., and other works. Here also are on view about 250 models of patented or protected inventions, and 120 models of designs under the Copyright Act. The approximate value of the books is 1000*l.*, and of the models 200*l.* The library is open to the public on each weekday, except Saturday, between the hours of nine a.m. and four p.m., and on Saturday from nine a.m. until noon.

The Supreme Court Library, at Melbourne, has branches in the ten assize towns. It is free to members of the legal profession between the hours of nine a.m. and four p.m., except on Saturdays, when it closes at noon. It is supported by fees paid under rules of court for the admission of barristers and attorneys. The number of volumes at the end of 1875 was 12,557. The expenditure from the commencement has amounted to 13,128*l.*, of which 812*l.* was spent in 1876.

There are free libraries, athenæums, or scientific, literary, or mechanics' institutes in most of the towns of the colony. Some of these institutions receive books on loan from the Melbourne Public Library. One hundred and forty-three furnished returns for 1876 to the Government Statist. Their statements show that their total receipts in that year amounted to 22,937*l.*, of which 5917*l.* was contributed by Government and 17,020 by private individuals; that the number of volumes in all the institutions amounted to 196,840, and that during the year, 1,251,644 visits were paid to seventy-four of them which kept attendance-books. If visitors attended the others in the same proportion, the total number of visits during 1876 must have amounted to at least 2,800,000.

The principal charitable institutions in Victoria affording indoor relief are situated in and around Melbourne. Here there are two general hospitals; lying-in, eye and ear, and children's hospitals; asylums for lunatics, for orphans, for the blind, and for the deaf and dumb; a benevolent asylum, and an institution of a similar character called an Immigrants' Home; the principal industrial schools, and two refuges for fallen women. There are besides, in the principal towns, thirty general hospitals, four benevolent and two lunatic asylums; several industrial schools and two female refuges.

The amount of accommodation contained in these institutions for the reception of inmates is shown in the following table:—

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—AMOUNT OF ACCOMMODATION.

Name of Institution.	Number of Institutions.	Wards or Rooms.		Number of Beds for Inmates.	Number of Cubic Feet to each Inmate.
		Number.	Capacity in Cubic Feet.		
General Hospitals . .	32	230	2,266,884	2,060	1,100
Lying-in Hospital[3] .	1	20	70,200	64	1,097
Blind Asylum . .	1	9	112,788	103	1,095
Deaf and Dumb Asylum	1	4	70,312	72	977
Eye and Ear Hospital .	1	3	10,694	22	486
Children's Hospital .	1	4	32,672	40	817
Benevolent Asylums .	5	116	814,387	1,168	697
Immigrants' Home .	1	42	383,882	430	893
Orphan Asylums . .	7	69	723,427	1,163	622
Industrial and Reformatory Schools . .	10	52	897,825	1,715	524
Hospitals for the Insane	4	72	2,904,568	2,613	1,112
Female Refuges . .	4	51	119,860	205	585
Total . .	68	672	8,407,499	9,655	870

According to regulations issued by the Central Board of Health in Melbourne, not less than 1200 cubic feet in the wards of a hospital, or other institution of a like nature, should be allowed for each in-

[3] Including the Hospital for Diseases of Women and Children.

dividual. It will be observed by the figures in the last column of the foregoing table that this amount of space for inmates is not attained in the institutions mentioned in any of the lines. It will, however, be remembered that few of the institutions are always crowded, and some are probably never occupied to the full extent of their capacity.

The following table shows the total and average number of inmates in the same institutions during the year; also the number of deaths, and the proportion of deaths to inmates. It will be noticed that no deaths occurred in the Blind Asylum, the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, or the Eye and Ear Hospital:—

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—INMATES AND DEATHS, 1876.

Name of Institution.	Number of Inmates.		Number of Deaths.	Proportion of Deaths to Total Number of Inmates.
	Total during the Year.	Average at one time.		
				per cent.
General Hospitals . .	14,857	1,536·2	1,544	10·39
Lying-in Hospital, &c. .	660	41·0	13 [4]	1·97
Blind Asylum . .	113	102·5	..	..
Deaf and Dumb Asylum.	88	75·0	..	..
Eye and Ear Hospital .	192	21·0	..	..
Children's Hospital .	118	13·0	17	14·41
Benevolent Asylums .	1,647	1.118·5	152	9·23
Immigrants' Home .	8,915	470·9	67	·75
Orphan Asylums . .	1,227	1,006·4	22	1·79
Industrial and Reformatory Schools . .	2,391	1,352·5	27	1·13
Hospitals for the Insane .	3,268	2,575 0	185	5·66
Female Refuges . .	336	179·5	1	·30
Total . .	33,812	8,491·5	2,028	60·00

The birthplaces of the inmates of all the institutions which furnish the return are given in the following table, and in the lowest line the numbers are compared with those of the same birthplaces according to

[4] Not including the deaths of thirty-four infants born in the institution.

the proportions which existed at the last census. It will be noticed that the Irish get the largest amount of benefit from the institutions, and next to them the English, and next the Scotch; that supposing relief was distributed to each nationality in proportion to its numbers, which would only be equitable, if each nationality contributed in the same ratio to the support of the institutions, which cannot be ascertained, it would follow that the proportion these three nationalities received was more than they were entitled to; also, that upon the same supposition the Chinese and the Australian-born got less than their share:—

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—BIRTHPLACES OF INMATES, 1876.

Name of Institution.	Australian Colonies.	England and Wales.	Ireland.	Scotland.	China.	Other Countries and Unknown.	Total.
General Hospitals .	4,123	4,646	3,322	1,285	336	1,145	14,857
Lying-in Hospital, &c.	266	184	163	29	..	18	660
Blind Asylum . .	91	16	3	2	..	1	113
Deaf & Dumb Asylual	84	1	1	2	..	..	88
Eye and Ear Hospitm	66	42	38	28	..	18	192
Benevolent Asylums	60	759	515	173	40	100	1,647
Immigrants' Home .	1,052	3,768	2,647	1,035	4	409	8,915
Orphan Asylums .	1,114	38	10	3	..	62	1,227
Industrial Schools .	907	11	14	2	..	51	985
Hospitals for the Insane . . .	278	930	1,149	340	88	483	3,268
Total .	8,041	10,395	7,862	2,899	468	2,287	31,952
Proportions per 1000 of the population .	19·68	53·43	68·60	45·27	23·21	..	38·46

A statement of the religions of the inmates of the same institutions is given in the following table. The figures in the lowest line express the proportions which those of each sect bear to the estimated living population of the same sect, brought on from the census in the same manner as has been explained in the case of the birthplaces. By these it will be observed that the Roman Catholics get the largest proportion of relief, and next to them the Protestants, next the Pagans, and least of all the Jews. It is possible, however, that

all the sects do not contribute in an equal ratio to the support of the institutions :—

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—RELIGIONS OF INMATES, 1876.

Name of Institution.	Protestants.	Roman Catholics.	Jews.	Pagans.	Of other Sects, of no Sect, and Unknown.	Total.
General Hospitals .	9,786	4,602	33	320	116	14,857
Lying-in Hospital, &c. .	428	229	1	..	2	660
Blind Asylum . .	93	19	1	..	..	113
Deaf and Dumb Asylum	74	14	..	..	..	88
Eye and Ear Hospital .	122	66	1	..	3	192
Benevolent Asylums .	1,102	489	12	11	33	1,647
Immigrants' Home .	6,025	2,855	5	5	25	8,915
Orphan Asylums . .	641	576	..	..	10	1,227
Industrial Schools[5] .	427	555	2	..	1	985
Hospitals for the Insane	1,750	1,097	18	79	324	3,268
Total . .	20,448	10,502	73	415	514	31,952
Proportions per 1000 of the population .	34·05	53·02	17·62	20.41	..	38·46

With reference to the two last tables, it should be remembered that I pointed out last year, in respect to similar statements, that the share the members of each nationality or sect obtain in the benefits of the charitable institutions depends as much upon the duration and extent of the relief afforded as upon the actual numbers relieved. Respecting this matter, however, no information is given in the return.

By the following table, which shows the receipts and expenditure of the same institutions, it will be observed that the amounts received from Government are, in the aggregate, about equal to three-fourths of the total revenue of the institutions. This is about the same proportion of Government aid as that shown in the returns of the two previous years :—

[5] The figures in this line represent the number of inmates of industrial schools at the end of the year. The number in the institutions during some portion of the year was 2071.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE, 1876.

Name of Institution.	Receipts.				Expenditure.
	From Government.	From Private Contributions.	From other Sources.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£	£
General Hospitals . .	68,163	29,807	10,787	108,757	102,072
Lying-in Hospital, &c. .	1,912	1,206	1,213	4,331	3,746
Blind Asylum . .	2,200	4,144	..	6,344	4,937
Deaf and Dumb Asylum	2,200	2,018	..	4,218	3,483
Eye and Ear Hospital .	600	799	..	1,299	1,233
Children's Hospital .	500	802	..	1,302	1,317
Benevolent Asylums .	23,930	6,713	4,653	35,296	32,853
Immigrants' Home .	5,325	522	1,646	7,493	7,692
Orphan Asylums . .	13,956	5,576	722	20,254	17,953
Industrial and Reformatory Schools . .	27,251	..	3,615	30,866	28,724
Hospitals for the Insane	87,992	..	4,199	92,191	92,191
Female Refuges . .	1,395	..	4,977	6,372	6,684
Total . .	235,424	51,587	31,812	318,823	302,885

The average expenditure in proportion to the number of individuals relieved varies in the different kinds of institutions. In the hospitals, where the inmates only remain for short periods, and in the Immigrants' Home, where they sometimes remain for only one night, the cost of maintenance per head is naturally much less than in other institutions in which the same individuals are kept throughout the year. It will be observed by means of the following table that, for the whole of the institutions, the average expenditure per inmate was about 9*l.*, and that in the different institutions it ranged from 17*s.* 3*d.* in the Immigrants' Home to 39*l.* 11*s.* 7*d.* and 43*l.* 13*s.* 10*d.* in the Deaf and Dumb Institution and the Asylum and School for the Blind respectively :—

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—AVERAGE COST OF EACH INMATE, 1876.

Name of Institution.	Total Number of Inmates.	Total Expenditure.	Average Cost of each Inmate.
		£	£ s. d.
General Hospitals . . .	14,857	102,072	6 17 4¾
Lying-in Hospital . . .	660	3,746	5 13 6¼
Blind Asylum	113	4,937	43 13 9¾
Deaf and Dumb Asylum . .	88	3,483	39 11 7
Eye and Ear Hospital . . .	192	1,233	6 8 5¼
Children's Hospital . . .	118	1,317	11 3 2¾
Benevolent Asylums . . .	1,647	32,853	19 18 11¼
Immigrants' Home . . .	8,915	7,692	0 17 3
Orphan Asylums	1,227	17,953	14 12 7½
Industrial and Reformatory Schools	2,391	28,724	12 0 3¼
Hospitals for the Insane . .	3,268	92,191	28 4 2½
Female Refuges	336	6,684	19 17 10¼
Total . .	33,812	302,885	8 19 2

The number received into the Victorian Asylum and School for the Blind during 1876 was five, making, with the previous inmates, a total of sixty-seven; eight were discharged during the year, and fifty-nine remained at its close. During the year a supply of lesson-books and apparatus for instructing the blind was received from England. The committee report good progress in the industrial department, there being twenty-one employed in the basket-shop, and nineteen in the brush-shop, nine of the latter being females; several were also employed in net-making and in mat-making, but the want of a competent instructor in the latter industry was much felt. The amounts realized by the sale of manufactures during the year were the following:—623*l.* for basketware, 191*l.* for brushware, 22*l.* for mats, and 63*l.* for woolwork, netting, and knitting, making a total of 899*l.* The sum of 827*l.* was also obtained from the proceeds of concerts given by the pupils in different parts of the colony.

The Deaf and Dumb Institution commenced the year with seventy-six pupils. During its progress twelve were admitted and fourteen discharged, and at its end seventy-four remained in the institution. The inspector reports that the children take an interest in their lessons,

and some of the elder ones work with accuracy sums in the compound rules and reduction; also that the writing generally exhibits care. The committee state that, in the industrial department, five boys are learning bootmaking, ten tailoring, and twenty-two gardening, while all the girls are regularly employed either in household duties or needlework.

The Victorian Eye and Ear Hospital received 103 in-patients during the year, making, with twelve in the institution at its commencement, a total of 115 treated. The patients discharged numbered 104, of whom seventy-five were stated to be cured or relieved, and twenty-five to be incurable. The committee report that 182 [6] capital operations were performed during the year, which were, in the majority of cases, successful, and not one death occurred.

The Melbourne Free Hospital for Sick Children had one indoor patient at the beginning of the year. During the year, 117 patients were admitted, and twenty-five remained at its close. Seventeen deaths occurred in the institution during the year.

The children received into the industrial schools in 1876, added to those in the institutions when the year commenced, numbered 2071, viz., 1155 boys and 916 girls. They were placed in the schools in the first instance for the following reasons:—.

	Boys.		Girls.
Found begging or receiving alms, or arrested as neglected children	913	..	706
Living in a brothel or with bad characters .	66	..	57
Having committed a punishable offence .	51	..	5
Unable to be controlled by parents . .	47	..	16
Absconded in a former year and re-taken in 1876	1	..	..
On other grounds	77	..	132
Total	1155	..	916

The children who left the industrial schools during the year numbered 1086, viz., 597 boys and 489 girls. These were discharged under the following circumstances:—

[6] Some of these were probably upon out-patients.

	Boys.		Girls.
At expiration of sentence, or on attaining the age of sixteen years	81	..	48
Placed in service or apprenticed . . .	190	..	172
Absconded and not re-taken . . .	23	..	..
Died	11	..	15
Placed out under boarding-out regulations .	181	..	177
Placed out to wet-nurse	11	..	17
On other grounds	100	..	60
Total	597	..	489

Besides the twenty-three boys mentioned above as having absconded from the industrial schools and not having been re-taken during the year, eighty-six children—viz., eighty-four boys and two girls—absconded and were recovered. At the end of the year, 558 boys and 427 girls remained in the institutions.

Of the 336 females who were inmates of refuges during 1876, 236, or 70 per cent., were at the Magdalen Asylum, Abbotsford. The Madeline Street refuge had sixty regular inmates during the year, and fourteen children who were allowed to accompany their mothers. The Geelong and Ballarat institutions had each twenty inmates in the year. Of the inmates of all the refuges, one, from the Madeline Street institution, was married; five, from the Magdalen Asylum, were discharged for misconduct; and one died at the same institution; fifty-one left the institutions voluntarily, or for reasons not stated; and 196 remained at the end of the year.

The ages of the inmates of refuges, irrespective of the children, were returned as follows:—Under fifteen, 9; fifteen to twenty, 62; twenty to twenty-five, 62; twenty-five to thirty, 67; thirty to thirty-five, 57; thirty-five to forty-five, 44; forty-five to fifty-five, 24; fifty-five to sixty-five, 11. Of those under fifteen, five were at the Abbotsford and four at the Geelong institution.

Twenty-six patients—viz., fifteen males and eleven females—were received into the Inebriate Retreat in 1876, as against twenty-eight males and eight females in 1875. Of those admitted in 1876, twenty-one entered voluntarily and five compulsorily; twenty-two had been constant and four periodical drinkers; five had had delirium tremens; three were descended from intemperate parents; and nine had been accustomed to use tobacco. No death occurred in the retreat, but

twenty-six patients were discharged during the year. At the close of the year, as at its commencement, five inmates remained in the institution.

The receipts of the Inebriate Retreat amounted in 1876 to 1142*l.*, of which 72*l.* was from subscriptions or donations, 965*l.* from patients, and 105*l.* from other sources. The expenditure during the year amounted to 1377*l.*, or 235*l.* more than the revenue.

The Melbourne Home and Governesses' Institute contains eighteen rooms, having 22,694 feet of cubic space, and makes up thirty-one beds. The total number of inmates in 1876 was 163, of whom 127 were needlewomen and thirty-six governesses, and the average number of inmates was nineteen. The receipts during the year, all from private sources, amounted to 953*l.*, and the expenditure to 923*l.* Classes for teaching cookery were held at this institution during the year.

The Private Retreat for the Insane at Cremorne[7] has thirty-two rooms, containing 138,600 cubic feet of space, and makes up thirty beds. It had nineteen patients remaining from 1875, and received fifty during the year, of whom six had been in the asylum before. The patients discharged numbered fifty, and of these forty-two were stated to be cured, six to be improved, and two were sent to a Government asylum. Nineteen patients, of whom ten were supposed to be curable and nine to be incurable, remained in the institution at the end of the year. These consisted of nine males and ten females.

The Melbourne Sailors' Home contains three wards divided into 102 separate rooms, in each of which there is a bed. The total number of cubic feet in the wards is 84,371. The number of inmates in 1876 was 1820. No aid was received from Government in the year. The receipts from private sources amounted to 3935*l.*, and the expenditure to 3941*l.*

Four free dispensaries furnished returns for 1876. Two of these were homœopathic institutions, one being in connexion with a homœopathic hospital. The persons treated during the year numbered 4678, viz., 1746 males and 2932 females. The total receipts amounted to 1276*l.*, of which 260*l.* was from Government and 1016*l.* from private sources. The total expenditure was 1175*l.*

Thirty-four benevolent or philanthropic societies furnished returns

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[7] This is not a charitable institution.

for 1876. These associations are for the relief of distressed or indigent persons, and are generally managed by ladies. The names of three of the societies indicate their connexion with the Jewish body, but no distinctive denomination is perceptible in the titles of the others. One of the societies is devoted to the assistance of discharged prisoners. The acts of relief during the year numbered 11,131; the receipts amounted to 14,132*l.*, of which 5775*l.* was from Government and 8357*l.* from private sources, and the expenditure to 13,505*l.*

The following is an abstract of the particulars furnished by the Friendly Societies which sent in returns of their operations for 1875 and 1876:—

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES, 1875 AND 1876.

	1875.		1876.
Number of societies	34	..	34
Number of branches	757	..	770
Average number of members . .	45,920	..	46,024
Number of members sick . . .	8873	..	8346
Number of cases of sickness . . .	9862	..	9242
Weeks for which aliment was allowed .	53,647	..	51,873
Number of deaths of members . . .	427	..	456
Number of registered wives . . .	28,425	..	26,680
Number of deaths of registered wives .	170	..	232

A Bill to amend and consolidate the laws relating to Friendly Societies is now (September, 1877) under the consideration of the Legislature.

The rates of wages in Melbourne are quoted as follow for the year 1875, and for the first year of each at the two previous quinquenniads. It will be observed that the wages at the last period are in many instances higher than they were at either of the other periods. In country districts the rates are generally somewhat higher than in the metropolis:—

Wages in Melbourne, 1865, 1870, and 1875.

Description of Labour.	1865.	1870.	1875.
Agricultural Labour.			
Farm labourers . per week, with rations	12*s.* to 15*s.*	15*s.* to 20*s.*	12*s.* 6*d.* to 20*s.*
Ploughmen . . „ „	15*s.* to 20*s.*	15*s.* to 20*s.*	20*s.* to 25*s.*
Reapers . . . per acre „	10*s.* to 12*s.*	7*s.* to 12*s.*	12*s.* to 15*s.*
Mowers . . . „ „	3*s.* to 4*s.*	4*s.* to 6*s.*	3*s.* to 5*s.*
Threshers . . per bushel „	4*d.* to 5*d.*	4*d.* to 6*d.*	5*d.* to 7*d.*
Pastoral Labour.			
Shepherds . . per annum, with rations	30*l.* to 35*l.*	35*l.* to 40*l.*	35*l.* to 52*l.*
Stock-keepers . „ „	40*l.* to 65*l.*	40*l.* to 50*l.*	40*l.* to 65*l.*
Hut-keepers . „ „	25*l.* to 30*l.*	25*l.* to 30*l.*	25*l.* to 40*l.*
Generally-useful men on stations } per week „	14*s.* to 18*s.*	15*s.*	15*s.* to 20*s.*
Sheep-washers . „ „	14*s.*	18*s.* to 20*s.*	15*s.* to 25*s.*
Shearers . per 100 sheep sheared „	13*s.*	12*s.* to 14*s.*	11*s.* to 15*s.*
Artisan Labour.			
Masons . . per day, without rations	8*s.* to 10*s.*	10*s.*	11*s.* to 12*s.*
Plasterers . . „ „	8*s.* to 10*s.*	10*s.*	10*s.*
Bricklayers . „ „	8*s.* to 10*s.*	10*s.*	10*s.*
Carpenters . „ „	8*s.* to 10*s.*	10*s.*	10*s.*
Blacksmiths . „ „	8*s.* to 10*s.*	10*s.* to 12*s.*	10*s.* to 13*s.*
Servants—Males and Married Couples.			
Married Couples, without family } per annum, with board and lodging . . }	50*l.* to 60*l.*	65*l.* to 88*l.*	60*l.* to 80*l.*
Married Couples, with family } „ „	40*l.* to 50*l.*	40*l.* to 55*l.*	40*l.* to 50*l.*
Men cooks, on farms and stations } „ „	40*l.* to 60*l.*	40*l.* to 55*l.*	40*l.* to 52*l.*
Grooms . . . „ „	40*l.* to 50*l.*	40*l.* to 55*l.*	45*l.* to 60*l.*
Gardeners . . per week „	18*s.* to 25*s.*	20*s.* to 30*s.*	20*s.* to 40*s.*
Servants—Females.			
Cooks . . { per annum, with board and lodging . . }	30*l.* to 40*l.*	35*l.* to 45*l.*	35*l.* to 60*l.*
Laundresses . „ „	25*l.* to 30*l.*	30*l.* to 40*l.*	30*l.* to 40*l.*
General servants . „ „	20*l.* to 30*l.*	26*l.* to 30*l.*	26*l.* to 35*l.*
Housemaids . „ „	20*l.* to 30*l.*	20*l.* to 30*l.*	25*l.* to 35*l.*
Nursemaids . „ „	15*l.* to 26*l.*	20*l.* to 30*l.*	20*l.* to 35*l.*
Miscellaneous Labour.			
General labourers . per day, without rations	5*s.* to 6*s.*	6*s.*	6*s.* to 7*s.*
Stonebreakers . { per cubic yard, without rations . }	3*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*	2*s.* to 3*s.*	2*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*
Seamen . . . per month, with rations	4*l.* to 5*l.*	4*l.* to 5*l.*	5*l.* to 6*l.*
Miners . . . per week, without rations	2*l.* 5*s.* to 3*l.*	2*l.* 5*s.* to 3*l.*	2*l.* to 2*l.* 10*s.*

PRICES OF CHIEF ARTICLES OF CONSUMPTION.

The following may be quoted as the average prices in Melbourne of

the chief articles of consumption in the same three years. The cost of groceries, wines, spirits, &c., is generally somewhat higher, and the cost of agricultural and grazing produce somewhat lower in country districts :—

PRICES IN MELBOURNE, 1865, 1870, AND 1875.

Articles.	1865.	1870.	1875.
Agricultural Produce.			
Wheat . . . per bushel	8*s.* to 9*s.* 9*d.*	4*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.*	4*s.* 8½*d.* to 6*s.* 9*d.*
Barley . . . ,,	4*s.* to 5*s.*	3*s.* to 5*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.* 2*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.*
Oats . . . . ,,	3*s.* to 5*s.* 9*d.*	3*s.* 3*d.* to 3*s.* 10*d.*	3*s.* to 5*s.* 3*d.*
Maize . . . ,,	3*s.* 9*d.* to 5*s.*	3*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.* 1*d.*	4*s.* 4*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.*
Bran . . . . ,,	1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* 11*d.*	1*s.* 0½*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.*
Hay . . . . per ton	4*l.* 10*s.* to 9*l.* 5*s.*	3*l.* 5*s.* to 8*l.* 10*s.*	3*l.* 10*s.* to 5*l.* 10*s.*
Flour, first quality . ,,	19*l.* 10*s.* to 25*l.*	11*l.* to 13*l.* 10*s.*	10*l.*5*s.* to 13*l.*15*s.*
Bread . . . per 4lb loaf	7*d.* to 1*s.*	6*d.* to 7*d.*	6*d.* to 7*d.*
Grazing Produce.			
Horses—			
Draught . . each	10*l.* to 50*l.*	12*l.* to 42*l.*	12*l.* to 40*l.*
Saddle & harness . ,,	5*l.* to 50*l.*	5*l.* to 25*l.*;	5*l.* to 45*l.*
Cattle—			
Fat . . . . ,,	2*l.* 10*s.* to 17*l.*	5*l.* 5*s.* to 11*l.* 5*s.*	6*l.* 10*s.* to 15*l.* 5*s.*
Milch Cows . . ,,	5*l.* to 10*l.*	6*l.* to 12*l.*	4*l.* to 12*l.* 10*s.*
Sheep, fat . . ,,	6*s.* to 24*s.*	5*s.* to 15*s.*	5*s.* to 24*s.*
Lambs, fat . . ,,	4*s.* to 18*s.*	4*s.* to 11*s.*	3*s.* 6*d.* to 11*s.* 6*d.*
Butchers' meat—			
Beef, retail . . per lb.	4*d.* to 9*d.*	3*d.* to 6*d.*	3*d.* to 9*d.*
Mutton ,, . . ,,	3*d.* to 8*d.*	1½*d.* to 4½*d.*	1½*d.* to 5*d.*
Veal ,, . . ,,	7*d.* to 9*d.*	6*d.*	5*d.* to 6*d.*
Pork ,, . . ,,	5½*d.* to 10*d.*	8*d.*	7*d.* to 10*d.*
Lamb ,, . . per quarter	3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*	2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*	1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.*
Dairy Produce.			
Butter—			
Colonial, retail . per lb.	1*s.* 10*d.* to 3*s.*	6*d.* to 1*s.* 9*d.*	10*d.* to 1*s.* 10*d.*
Imported, salt, wholesale . ,,	6*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*	9*d.* to 1*s.*	10*d.* to 1*s.*
Cheese—			
Colonial, retail . ,,	8*d.* to 2*s.*	9*d.* to 10½*d.*	10*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.*
Imported, wholesale ,,	7*d.* to 1*s.* 5*d.*	1*s.* to 1*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.* 4*d.*
Milk . . . . per quart	6*d.* to 7*d.*	6*d.*	4*d.* to 6*d.*
Farm Yard Produce.			
Geese . . . per couple	8*s.* to 12*s.*	7*s.* to 11*s.*	8*s.* to 12*s.*
Ducks . . . ,,	4*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.*	4*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.*	5*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.*
Fowls . . . ,,	4*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.*	3*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.*	5*s.* to 7*s.*
Rabbits . . . ,,	1*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.*	1*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.*	1*s.* to 4*s.*
Pigeons . . . ,,	2*s.* to 3*s.*	1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.*	1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.*
Turkeys . . . each	9*s.* to 20*s.*	5*s.* to 12*s.*	6*s.* to 15*s.*
Sucking pigs . . ,,	4*s.* to 10*s.*	7*s.* to 12*s.*	12*s.* to 13*s.*
Bacon . . . . per lb.	7½*d.* to 1*s.* 5*d.*	10*d.* to 1*s.* 2*d.*	1*s.* to 1*s.* 2*d.*
Ham . . . . ,,	10*d.* to 1*s.* 7*d.*	1*s.* to 1*s.* 4*d.*	1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.*
Eggs . . . . per doz.	1*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*	10*d.* to 2*s.*	10*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.*

Prices in Melbourne, 1865, 1870, and 1875.

Articles.	1865.	1870.	1875.
Garden Produce.			
Potatoes—			
Wholesale . . per ton	3*l.* 10*s.* to 6*l.*	3*l.*	3*l.* to 10*l.*
Retail . . per lb.	½*d.* to 1½*d.*	½*d.*	½*d.* to 1*d.*
Onions, dried . . per cwt.	10*s.* to 20*s.*	5*s.* to 17*s.*	6*s.* to 12*s.*
Carrots . per dozen bunches	9*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*	9*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*	6*d.* to 9*d.*
Turnips . ,,	6*d.* to 3*s.*	6*d.* to 2*s.*	4*d.* to 1*s.*
Radishes . ,,	4*d.* to 8*d.*	4*d.* to 6*d.*	4*d.* to 6*d.*
Cabbages . . . per doz.	1*s.* to 12*s.*	6*d.* to 6*s.*	4*d.* to 4*s.*
Cauliflowers . . ,,	1*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.*	1*s.* to 8*s.*	1*s.* to 4*s.*
Lettuces . . . ,,	6*d.* to 3*s.*	6*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*	3*d.* to 9*d.*
Green peas . . per lb.	...	...	1*d.* to 4*d.*
Miscellaneous Articles.			
Tea (duty paid) . per lb.	1*s.* to 3*s.*	8*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.*	7*d.* to 3*s.*
Coffee (in bond) . ,,	8*d.* to 1*s.*	6*d.* to 9½*d.*	10*d.* to 1*s.* 2½*d.*
Sugar (duty paid) . per ton	26*l.* 10*s.* to 57*l.*	24*l.* to 56*l.*	20*l.* to 36*l.* 10*s.*
Rice . . . ,,	18*l.* to 30*l.*	16*l.* 10*s.* to 23*l.*	18*l.* to 27*l.* 10*s.*
Tobacco (in bond) . per lb.	8*d.* to 4*s.*	6*d.* to 1*s.* 7*d.*	9*d.* to 3*s.*
Soap—Colonial . per ton	25*l.* to 30*l.*	22*l.* to 30*l.*	20*l.* to 30*l.*
Candles—			
Tallow . . . per lb.	7*d.* to 9*d.*	4½*d.* to 4½*d.*	4*d.* to 5*d.*
Sperm . . . ,,	9*d.* to 1*s.* 1*d.*	10½*d.* to 1*s.*	8½*d.* to 11½*d.*
Salt . . . . per ton	3*l.* to 4*l.* 10*s.*	3*l.* 15*s.* to 4*l.* 10*s.*	3*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* to 6*l.* 5*s.*
Coals . . . ,,	26*s.* to 30*s.*	20*s.* to 21*s.* 6*d.*	29*s.* to 35*s.*
Firewood . . . ,,	8*s.* to 12*s.*	9*s.* to 12*s.* 6*d.*	12*s.* fo 13*s.*
Wines, Spirits, &c.			
Ale (duty paid) . per hhd.	4*l.* to 8*l.* 15*s.*	5*l.* 10*s.* to 8*l.* 10*s.*	6*l.* to 9*l.* 5*s.*
,, ,, . per doz.	8*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* 3*d.*	8*s.* to 10*s.*	7*s.* to 11*s.*
Porter ,, . per hhd.	5*l.* to 8*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*	3*l.* 10*s.* to 6*l.* 10*s.*	5*l.* 10*s.* to 8*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*
,, ,, . per doz.	8*l.* to 10*s.* 9*d.*	7*s.* to 10*s.*	7*s.* 6*d.* to 11*s.*
Brandy (in bond) . per gall.	4*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.*	4*s.* 3*d.* to 9*s.*	3*s.* 3*d.* to 9*s.* 6*d.*
Rum ,, . ,,	2*s.* 9*d.* to 4*s.*	3*s.* 1½*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*	3*s.* 1*d.* to 4*s.* 4½*d.*
Whiskey ,, . ,,	2*s.* 9*d.* to 4*s.* 9*d.*	3*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.*	4*s.* 3*d.* to 7*s.* 6*d.*
Hollands ,, . ,,	1*s.* 10*d.* to 2*s.* 9*d.*	3*s.* 3*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*	2*s.* 9*d.* to 4*s.*
Port wine ,, . per pipe	30*l.* to 85*l.*	20*l.* to 100*l.*	16*l.* to 104*l.*
,, (duty paid) per doz.	24*s.* to 50*s.*	24*s.* to 50*s.*	25*s.* to 55*s.*
Sherry (in bond) . per butt	36*l.* to 110*l.*	20*l.* to 120*l.*	18*l.* to 130*l.*
,, (duty paid) . per doz.	40*s.* to 56*s.*	20*s.* to 75*s.*	25*s.* to 85*s.*
Claret . . . ,,	15*s.* to 70*s.*	11*s.* 6*d.* to 100*s.*	10*s.* 9*d.* to 80*s.*
Champagne . . ,,	30*s.* to 84*s.*	30*s.* to 85*s.*	26*s.* 9*d.* to 100*s.*

The price of gold varies in different districts according to its purity. In the last quarter of 1875 the lowest price quoted (3*l.* per oz.) was in the Beechworth district, but some gold in the same district was stated to have realized as much as 4*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* per oz. The highest average was in the Ballarat district, in which the prices ranged from 3*l.* 17*s.* to 4*l.* 3*s.* The lowest average was in the Gippsland district, in which the prices ranged from 3*l.* 5*s.* to 4*l.*

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

See page 185.

Nearly half the imports are from the United Kingdom, and more than a quarter from New South Wales. The latter consist chiefly of wool and live stock. Fully half the exports are to the United Kingdom, after which the countries to which the greatest value of goods are sent, are those grouped under the head of "Other British Possessions," which receive 22 per cent. of the whole exports; the articles being chiefly gold and specie sent to Ceylon, intended generally, no doubt, for further shipment to the United Kingdom. Next to these countries, the best customer for Victorian exports is New South Wales, which received, in 1876, 14 per cent. of the whole. The value of the imports from and the exports to the different countries, and the percentage of such values to the total imports and exports, are given in the following table:—

IMPORTS FROM AND EXPORTS TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES, 1876.

Countries.	Imports therefrom.		Exports thereto.	
	Value.	Per-centage.	Value.	Per-centage.
	£		£	
The United Kingdom .	7,303,271	46·50	7,128,841	50·22
New South Wales . .	4,094,414	26·07	1,987,199	14·00
Queensland . . .	21,573	·14	62,166	·44
South Australia . .	403,118	2·57	454,072	3·20
Western Australia . .	10,939	·07	49,265	·34
Tasmania . . .	251,255	1·60	420,132	2·96
New Zealand . . .	696,448	4·43	838,251	5·90
Other British possessions	1,300,444	8·28	3,136,165	22·09
The United States . .	414,996	2·64	113,832	·80
Other Foreign States .	1,208,896	7·70	6,564	·05
Total .	15,705,354	100·00	14,196,487	100·00

The next table shows the value of imports from and exports to the same countries in 1876, and in the first year of the two previous quinquenniads. It will be observed that the imports from the United Kingdom fell off considerably as between the first and middle period,

but at the last period again stood at nearly the same amount as at the first. The exports to the United Kingdom were lowest at the first, and highest at the middle period. As between the first period and the last, the imports from New South Wales, Western Australia, and New Zealand increased, whilst those from Queensland, South Australia, and Tasmania diminished; and the exports to all the neighbouring colonies except New Zealand increased, whilst those to that colony fell off 33 per cent. It should be remarked that the value of imports from New Zealand, at the middle period, was more than seven times as great as it was at the first, and more than twice as great as it was at the last:—

IMPORTS FROM AND EXPORTS TO DIFFERENT COUNTRIES, 1866, 1871, AND 1876.

Countries.	Imports therefrom.			Exports thereto.		
	1866.	1871.	1876.	1866.	1871.	1876.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
The United Kingdom .	7,846,828	4,992,603	7,303,271	6,754,536	8,529,603	7,128,841
New South Wales . .	2,524,414	2,321,407	4,094,414	1,379,734	1,106,288	1,987,199
Queensland . . .	32,321	16,001	21,573	21,223	46,432	62,166
South Australia . .	473,963	469,454	403,118	251,851	214,099	454,072
Western Australia. .	1,194	1,403	10,939	10,989	41,996	49,265
Tasmania . . .	328,290	331,788	251,255	304,132	305,554	420,132
New Zealand. . .	208,732	1,583,368	696,448	1,255,039	847,880	838,251
Other British possessions	1,250,535	1,355,013	1,300,444	2,883,762	3,279,716	3,136,165
The United States. .	947,546	409,840	414,996	2,253	165,064	113,832
Other Foreign States .	1,157,888	861,118	1,208,896	27,027	21,188	6,564
Total . .	14,771,711	12,341,995	15,705,354	12,889,546	14,557,820	14,196,427

Note.—At the last period, the imports from and the exports to New South Wales are inclusive of Border traffic.

In 1876, 78 per cent. of the imports were landed, and 89 per cent. of the exports were shipped, at the port of Melbourne. About a fifth of the imports entered the colony at the Murray ports, but only about a fortieth of the exports were sent away therefrom. The chief of these ports is Echuca, at which 13 per cent. of the total imports were landed. The only important port of shipment in Victoria, except Melbourne, is Geelong, from which, in 1876, 7¾ per cent. of the total exports were sent away. The following table gives the names of the various ports, and the value of the goods imported and exported at each during that year:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT EACH PORT, 1876.

Ports.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Value.	Per-centage.	Value.	Per-centage.
	£		£	
Melbourne . .	12,235,235	77·90	12,686,345	89·36
Geelong . .	199,077	1·27	1,099,401	7·75
Portland . .	4,078	·03	22,776	·16
Port Fairy . .	2,738	·02	12,407	·09
Port Albert . .	1,213	·01	3	..
Warrnambool . .	25,729	·16	28,313	·20
Cowana . . .	1,700	·01	3,174	·02
Echuca . . .	2,069,723	13·18	175,088	1·33
Narung . . .	21,394	·14	1,988	·01
Swan Hill . .	86,850	·55	10,388	·07
Tocumwall . .	53,333	·34	5,335	·04
Wahgunyah . .	321,706	2·05	40,311	·28
Wodonga . .	518,159	3·30	107,427	·76
Howlong . .	14,904	·09	3,531	·03
At stations . .	149,515	·95	..	..
Total .	15,705,354	100·00	14,196,487	100·00

RATES OF WAGES.

THE following are the rates of wages paid :—

Domestic Servants.—For Town—Housemaids, 30*l.* to 36*l.* per annum; female cooks receive from 35*l.* to 60*l.* per annum; male do., 30*s.* to 80*s.* per week; nursemaids, 25*l.* to 35*l.* per annum; laundresses, 30*l.* to 40*l.* per annum. For Hotels—Cooks, male and female, 50*l.* to 100*l.* per annum; housemaids, 35*l.* to 40*l.* per do. For Stations—First-class married couples for home stations, 70*l.* to 90*l.* per annum; second-class do., with children, 40*l.* to 50*l.* per do.; cooks, 45*l.* to 55*l.* per do.; housemaids, 35*l.* to 40*l.* per do. For Farms—Men cooks, 50*l.* per annum; married couples, 60*l.* to 70*l.* per do.; women servants, 30*l.* to 35*l.* per do.; farming men, 20*s.* per week; milkmen, 20*s.* per do.; ploughmen, about 20*s.* per do.

Waiters for hotels, 25*s.* to 35*s.* per week; grocers' assistants, 15*s.* to 30*s.* do.; general store do., 20*s.* to 40*s.* do.; nursery governesses, 30*l.* to 40*l.* per annum; finishing do., 60*l.* to 80*l.* do.

Station Hands.—Stockmen receive from 60*l.* to 75*l.* per annum; shepherds, 15*s.* to 20*s.* per week; ordinary working men, 15*s.* to 20*s.* per do.; drovers, 25*s.* to 40*s.* per do.; gardeners, 15*s.* to 25*s.* per do.

Building Trades.—Stonemasons, 10*s.* per day; plasterers, bricklayers, slaters, 10*s.* per do.; carpenters, 10*s.* per do.; labourers, 7*s.* per do.; pick-and-shovel men, 6*s.* 6*d.* per do. The day's work is eight hours.

Bootmakers.—For riveting children's boots the rate is 6*d.* per pair; boys', 10*d.*; women's, 1*s.*; and men's, 1*s.* 3*d.* The same rates are paid for finishing. In some of the best order shops the rates paid are:—Wellingtons, 10*s.*; elastics, 7*s.* 6*d.*; closing, 8*s.* Good hands for ladies' boots are scarce. Higher rates are paid in first and second-class "bespoke shops."

Bakers.—First-class workmen (foremen) average 3*l.* per week; second hands, 2*l.* to 2*l.* 2*s.* In inferior shops the rates are slightly lower.

Butchers.—Shopmen receive from 35*s.* to 40*s.* per week; boys, 15*s.* to 20*s.* per week; slaughtermen receive from 40*s.* to 50*s.* per week; small-goods men (pork-butchers) receive 30*s.* to 40*s.* per week, with rations; superior men receive more.

Brassfinishers and Coppersmiths.—In the engine-fitting shops there is a fair supply of workmen; the wages are from 9*s.* to 12*s.* per day. The same rates are paid in the fine brass-finishing shops.

Cabinetmakers.—The earnings of the men employed in this trade are very variable. In some of the best shops in Melbourne, the wages paid are as high as 3*l.* 10*s.* per week, while in inferior establishments the men receive from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* per week. In the country the wages paid are still less.

Clothing Factories.—Where the work is done on the premises, the wages earned are as follows:—Tailoresses, from 1*l.* to 1*l.* 15*s.* per week; pressers, 2*l.* to 2*l.* 15*s.* and upwards. From 12*s.* to 1*l.* is earned at shirtmaking in factory-hours, but the greater portion is taken home Clothing machinists earn from 15*s.* to 30*s.* per week in factory-hours.

Coopers.—Most of the work in this trade is done by the piece; the wages fixed by the trade are 10*s.* per day of ten hours. Tallow casks are made at 5*s.* to 5*s.* 6*d.* for thirds, and 4*s.* 6*d.* for fourths. Thirds are now most made, there being but little demand for fourths.

Coachbuilders.—Smiths receive from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* 5*s.* and 4*l.* per week. A few hands earn as high as 4*l.* per week. Body-makers—Most of this work is done by the piece. The average earnings of good

hands are from 2*l.* 10*s.* to as high as 4*l.* per week. Wheelers—Most of this work is done by the piece; the wages made are from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* per week. Painters receive from 9*s.* to 12*s.* per day. Trimmers get from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* per week. Vice-men earn from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 2*l.* per week. The rate of labour in this trade is ten hours per day.

Drapers.—In all the best establishments well qualified drapers' assistants earn from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* per week. Carpet salesmen obtain about the same rates. Upholsterers, 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* and 4*l.* per week Mantle-makers 15*s.* to 20*s.* per week. Milliners from 35*s.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* per week. Needlewomen and dressmakers from 15*s.* to 20. per week.

Farriers.—First-class firemen get 2*l.* 15*s.* per week; door-men receive from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 2*l.* per week. Farriers for the country receive from 20*s.* to 30*s.* per week, with their board and lodging.

Grooms in livery stables get from 30*s.* to 40*s.* per week; coachmen receive from 35*s.* to 50*s.* per do.

Gardeners.—The men in this trade are not at all well paid. In situations near town the rates are from 30*s.* to 40*s.* per week without rations. The rates with rations are 15*s.* to 20*s.* Very good men get 25*s.* per week.

Hatters.—Bodymakers get 18*s.* to 20*s.* per dozen for regulars, and 12*s.* to 14*s.* per dozen for low crowns. Finishers get 22*s.* to 24*s.* per dozen for silk hats; 20*s.* per dozen for pull-over; and 12*s.* to 14*s.* per dozen for low crown. Shapers are paid—For regulars, 12*s.* per dozen; for Anglesea, 9*s.* per dozen over ⅘ths; and 6*s.* per dozen for plain shape; low crown Anglesea, 8*s.* per dozen; over ⅘ths, 6*s.* per dozen; under ⅘ths, 4*s.* per dozen.

Iron Trades.—Fitters receive from 9*s.* to 12*s.* per day; turners from 10*s.* to 13*s.* per do.; boilermakers and platers from 12*s.* to 13*s.* per do.; riveters from 9*s.* to 11*s.* per do.; blacksmiths from 10*s.* to 13s. per do.; hammermen from 7*s.* to 8*s.* per do.; and moulders from 10*s.* to 12*s.* and 13*s.* per do.

Jewellers.—In the manufacturing jewellers' establishments the workmen receive from 2*l.* 15*s.* to 3*l.* 15*s.* For the finer work the wages range higher. Good tradesmen can get full employment.

Miners.—The average rates for miners is 2*l.* per week for surface miners, and 2*l.* 5*s.* for underground work in some deep wet mines 2*l.* 10*s.* is paid. In some outlying districts higher rates are obtained, but only by a few men.

Navvies.—The rate paid the men employed on the Government railways is 6*s.* 6*d.* per day.

Painters and Glaziers.—Fair tradesmen receive 9*s.* per day. This trade is fully supplied.

Plumbers and gasfitters receive 3*l.* per week of eight hours per day.

Printers, &c.—The rate paid in this trade is 1*s.* per 1000. In manufacturing stationers' establishments lithographers are paid 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* 15*s.* per week; binders, 2*l.* to 3*l.* per week; paper rulers, 3*l.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* per week. The demand for labour in these trades is limited, and is at present fully supplied; good head-men get higher rates in the binding and lithographing departments.

Stevedores' Men, &c.—Lumpers' wages are 12*s.* per day at present. There is a good deal of business doing. Engineers in tug-boats and donkey-engine drivers receive 18*l.* per month.

Ship Carpenters.—The rate paid in this trade is 13*s.* per day of eight hours. Work is irregular.

Sailors on board ocean-going ships and steamers receive 4*l.* 10*s.* per month. In coasting vessels the rate is 5*l.* per month. Men receive 6*l.* per month in coasting steamers. Trimmers get 7*l.*, and firemen 9*l.* in coasting steamers. In vessels foreign bound from Melbourne the rate is the same as in coasting vessels.

Saddlers.—Really good tradesmen are scarce, but second-class workmen are plentiful enough. The earnings are about 2*l.* 15*s.* per week. The commoner sorts of work are not paid for so well, and wages vary from 25*s.* to 35*s.* per week. The work in this trade is nine hours per day.

Tanners and Curriers.—Beamsmen receive from 40*s.* to 50*s.* per week; shedsmen, 42*s.* to 45*s.* per do.; tanners, 38*s.* to 45*s.* per do.—time, ten hours per day. Curriers, at piecework, can earn from 50*s.* to 70*s.* per week.

Tailors.—In a few first-class establishments the rate paid is 1*s.* per hour. In others the rate is 10*d.* per hour. In second-class shops the earnings are from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* per week. In factories the rates vary the men being often paid by the piece. Where wages are paid, the rate is 40*s.* per week of factory hours.

Tinsmiths earn from 2*l.* to 3*l.* per week; ironworkers, 2*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* per do.; galvanizers, 3*l.* per do. Most of the work in this trade is done by the piece.

Watchmakers.—The general rate of wages in this trade is 2*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* per week, though some of the superior workmen get as high as 5*l.*

NOTE.

WITHIN the last few days, and subsequently to the printing of the preceding Statistics, the Proprietors of *The Colonies and India* weekly newspaper have received Mr. Hayter's Year-Book for 1877-8, which has not yet been forwarded either by the Government, or by any one else to the Agent-General. For the following additional information, therefore, (covering 1877-8) the present writer is indebted to *The Colonies and India* of the 25th of January, 1879.

"The tables of summaries are brought down to the latest date, and enable a rapid perception to be formed of the present status of the Colony. Victoria, with its disproportionately smaller area (88,198 square miles as against the 310,938 of New South Wales, 669,520 of Queensland, 903,690 of South Australia, and 1,000,000 of West Australia), is still absolutely far ahead of the other great divisions of the Australian continent in population, immigrants, public revenue, public debt (if that be a sign of prosperity, as some political economists aver), imports and exports, shipping, grant of Crown lands, and cultivated area (with the exception of New South Wales as to revenue, shipping, and Crown grants, and of South Australia as to cultivated area, in which respectively it is slightly exceeded by those much larger Colonies). This superiority, however, cannot possibly be maintained as immigration and cultivation increase; the 'big battalions' must have their weight in time, and New South Wales is evidently creeping up in the race, having an increased population of over 32,000 in the year, as against the 20,000 increase of Victoria, and of over 102,000 in the last five years, as against Victoria's 70,000 during the same period.

"The agricultural statistics of the Colony for 1877-78 show a steady increase in the number of holdings, area of occupation and enclosed area, and an increase above recent years in the area cultivated; wheat, tobacco, turnips, hay, and green forage crops being in excess, at the expense of other grains, peas, millet, and table vegetables, which are less than usual. The vine is less cultivated than in the past year, with a commensurate diminution in wine and (markedly) brandy, and the Mother-country is to some extent to be blamed for this, as, independently of the prohibitive home duty on the naturally high-alcoholized Colonial grape product, the importation of sparrows has caused an appreciable destruction of the fruit.

"Population has been above referred to; but it may be noted that while the number of emigrants from the Colony has only increased by

some 2000 during the year, the immigration to it has increased by considerably over 5000. General revenue has increased largely compared with former years, and expenditure is actually less than in the last year. Crown land sales are emphatically declining, being less than any year since 1868. Of live stock, sheep only are falling off, being less than in any year since 1871, and the exportation of wool naturally diminishes, though not in an equal ratio. The export of tallow and hides falls also considerably; but that of breadstuffs is so large as to render comparison useless—namely, 464,284 bushels, a quantity that has been only exceeded on two occasions (1862 and 1863) during statistical memory, and is larger by 367,511 bushels than that of the last year, which was considerably larger than its predecessor. The gold exported remains much as in 1876 (over 2,000,000*l.* in value). The public debt is increased only by 7531*l.*; but the Government expenditure on railways alone is 62,791*l.* more than in 1876. Schools and scholars (though not to any great extent), churches and chapels, friendly societies, and both depositors and balances at Savings Banks are on the increase; and the criminal aspect is also reassuring, since the number of persons committed for trial, convicted, and executed, are all decreasing."

DEFENCES OF VICTORIA.

(*Abridged from "Victorian Year-Book" for* 1876-7.)

Between the years 1854 and 1876 the large sum of 2,132,108*l.* has been expended on the defences of the colony. These consist partly of land defences, partly of naval forces. Besides the expenditure on fortifications in the harbour, there is a paid body of artillery officers and men; and also a body of volunteers, consisting of cavalry, artillery, engineers, torpedo, &c., and rifles, in all amounting to 4132 in number. The strength and establishment of the naval forces are as follow:—H.M.V.S. *Cerberus* is an iron-clad, having two turrets; she is 235 feet long and of 2107 tons measurement, and has engines of 250 horse power and four Woolwich 10 inch 400 pounder guns. She was built expressly for the colony in the year 1868, costing 175,000*l.*, of which sum the Imperial Government very liberally contributed 100,000*l.* This contribution, doubtless, was granted on the ground that, in the event of any hostilities against the harbour or shipping, the *Cerberus* would be defending not only colonial but Imperial property, seeing

that at all times a large portion of the shipping in Hobson's Bay belongs to British owners. H.M.V.S. *Nelson* is a line-of-battle ship with the following guns:—Two, 7 inch 116 pr.; twenty shunt, 45 cwt. 64 pr.; twenty smooth bore, 32 pr; six Howitzer, 12 pr. The naval reserve have eleven smooth bore 32 pr. An additional number of guns of the most approved modern construction are at present being manufactured in England for the colony, and a torpedo launch of the best Thornicroft pattern is also being built for the Victorian Government, and the requisite number of officers for torpedo service are forthwith to be engaged in England for harbour defences.

EMIGRATION TO VICTORIA.

THE "TIMES" LEADING ARTICLE, OF WEDNESDAY, JUNE 16, 1869, ON LETTER AT PAGE 147 *ante*.

A LETTER which we publish this morning ought to find its way into every working-man's Clubroom, Institute, or House of Call in the United Kingdom. It comes from one who writes from the very spot and scenes which he describes, surrounded by the evidence on which his statements are based. First of all he puts the questions which he rightly supposes require answers. What are people to expect who emigrate from this country to Australia? What kind of place is it? Is it very different from England? Are there any roads, railways, shops, churches, or schools? Is it really easy to get a living there, and can a living be found at once? Suppose an emigrant and family put on shore at Melbourne without friends and acquaintances, and with no great supply of money; what is to become of them for the first night or two, or the first week? These inquiries, it is said, are constantly addressed to returned colonists by people half willing yet half afraid to try their fortunes in a strange land. We do not wonder at it. They express exactly the doubts which any intending emigrant would feel, and now we supply the answers in a most satisfactory form.

To begin with, Australia is, in all the chief centres of settlement, as civilized a country in all essentials as England itself. At Melbourne, for instance, the streets are as well paved, pitched, and lighted as at Liverpool or Bristol, the only difference being that they are about three times as broad. The shops are genuine English shops all over.

The roadway is full of drays, waggons, carriages, and hansoms, just as in London, though there is less danger of your being knocked down. It is a little surprising to find the rarest pine-apples ticketed at four a shilling, and an excellent hot meat dinner offered for sixpence; but those novelties, at any rate, are not changes for the worse. We hardly know whether to mention street music as a recommendation; but if any London emigrant should have a fancy for a brass band in front of his window, that feature also of his home life is reproduced faithfully at the antipodes. But what is to be done for the first few days of suspense before employment comes in and a chance of settling is offered? What becomes of the new arrival without a shilling in his pocket, and with no knowledge of the country or its ways? The reply is promptly made. He is taken under the care of the State, which provides for him till he can provide for himself. In a cheerful and healthy suburb of the town stands the Emigrants' Home, and in that establishment any emigrant destitute of means is entertained until the option of work is found for him. To this place the employers of labour constantly resort, and bargains are struck without delay or difficulty. Our correspondent has known "several hundreds" of new-comers engaged and disposed of in a few hours.

Generally, however, the chief town is not the place for an emigrant to stay in. His aim should be the country, and from Melbourne the country can be reached in all directions with the greatest ease. The centres of mining and agricultural industry are connected with the capital by railways; beyond the railways are good macadamized roads, with good coaches running on them. These roads lead towards the interior of a continent almost as large as Europe, with every variety of soil and climate. In some parts there are enormous tracts of rich land with hardly a tree upon it, so that no clearing is required to fit it for the plough. The interior communications are remarkably good, insomuch that, in case of an over-stocked labour-market at one point, the emigrant can remove himself with perfect facility and little cost to another; while in no place does he appear to leave civilization behind him. The smallest towns and most remote villages are English towns and villages still, fairly supplied with all the necessaries and not a few of the luxuries of existence. Well may our correspondent add, after such a description, that no country in the world could offer better prospects to the capitalist, or greater advantages to the working man, than the British colony of Victoria.

But how to reach this paradise? It can be reached for 10*l*. That

sum will take a mechanic from London and place him in the Emigrants' Home at Melbourne with a new world before him. It will be said, however, that he must carry something to the common stock of the settlement—either a modicum of capital or some available skill or labour. No doubt he must; but, putting aside the question of capital, our correspondent assumes the very case of an emigrant with nothing but labour, more or less skilled, to contribute to the public wealth in return for a maintenance. A man who can do nothing whatever would find even Australia a bad place to live in; but there is employment, and something better than employment, ready for all who can work and save. Just now wages are "maintained"—that is, are not falling—and the rates of payment are certainly pleasant to look at. Masons and bricklayers get 10*s.* a day; carpenters, 9*s.*; builders' labourers, 7*s.*; blacksmiths, 30*s.* a week; wheelwrights, 35*s.* to 40*s.* On the farm a shepherd may get his 40*l.* a year; a hut-keeper, 22*l.*; a lad who can milk, 12*s.* a week; and a general farm labourer, 15*s.* "Common labour," it is added by way of summary, "may be quoted at 6*s.* to 7*s.* a day." Nor are these wages reduced in actual value by high charges of living. Perhaps lodgings are rather dear; but where a dinner of the best meat, bread, and vegetables without stint, can be had for sixpence, living must needs be cheap.

We need hardly repeat the cautions or corrections with which all such accounts as these must be taken. Even in a new country the demand for labour is limited by obvious considerations, and it is perfectly possible at any particular place or moment to overstock the market. But the real essential and unassailable value of these prospects lies in the boundless supply of land. Where there is land to be occupied or reclaimed there is room for a new community, and wherever a new community springs up demands for all kinds of service quickly follow. That is the true secret of colonial wealth. When our correspondent speaks of unoccupied districts far larger than English counties, and at least equally fertile, he indicates the resources from which a new population is to be supported. Of course, capital is necessary in the first place. A man without tools, seeds, or stock would starve even in the midst of acres which he could call his own; but when, by the combination of capital and labour, these solitudes have been distributed into farms, and homesteads have grown into villages, then every species of industry comes into requisition. The thriving farmer wants farm labourers and indoor servants; a little later he looks for gover-

nesses and schoolmasters; and then all these teachers and servants and tradesmen get rich in their turn, and multiply still further the wants of the young community. The colony of Victoria will grow by reproductions of its present self. New Melbournes, new Geelongs, new Ballarats, and new Sandhursts will spring up, and its population, instead of being reckoned by its hundreds of thousands, will be counted by millions. From our correspondent's letter we collect that for all who can contribute to the reclamation and occupation of land there is and will be a steady demand on remunerative terms, and that at present the demand for other kinds of useful labour is considerable also. Only, emigration, to be successful, must be organized on a sound system, with a clear appreciation of facts and a definite purpose. Out of nothing nothing will come, even in the happy land of Australia; but to those who can work and will work the colony offers a comfortable and abundant home.

NOTE.—*See page* 207. —Since the foregoing was sent to press the following information touching the successful acclimatization of the salmon in Tasmania has reached this country:—

SALMON IN TASMANIA.—Salmon acclimatization is undoubtedly a thorough success. Several English salmon have been taken in the Derwent during the month. His Excellency the Governor succeeded in hooking a fine specimen at New Norfolk. It weighed 6 lb., and measured 26 in. in length and 6 in. in breadth. Another fish of the same genus was caught at Ralph's Bay. It was remarkably plump, and though 2 in. less in length than the other, measured 8 in. in breadth and weighed close on 6 lb. The largest fish of the season, however, was one caught at New Norfolk by Mr. J. Raynor. It weighed upwards of 20 lb., and was 3 ft. in length. Besides this some salmon smelts came down the trough leading from the River Plenty to the salmon ponds. This is the fourth season that smelts have come from the river through the same troughing, and the fact is particularly interesting, as it proves that the parent fish must go up the River Plenty (in which river salmon were first liberated) to deposit their ova.—*Australian Paper.*

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